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ABSTRACT

Teaching Japanese as a second language is relatively new in the United States. The learning experience of the Japanese language learner is typically quite different from the learner of a European foreign language. It is also more challenging for the teacher, because the support and experience base for teaching Japanese is not nearly as rich or established as that for teaching Spanish or French. This book is an attempt by Japanese language teachers in Washington State to remedy this gap by specifying standards of instructional content and student performance that are comprehensive, explicit, and achievable. This book itself is not a curriculum--it is more of a framework. It should be read as a resource document--as a tool for building curricula that will allow students to achieve functional communication skills in Japanese. These guidelines are intended to assist individual teachers and professional associations throughout the United States in designing curricula. Chapter titles include the following: "Principles and Strategies"; "Topics, Functions, and Concepts"; "A Framework for Assessment"; "Authenticity, Context, and Culture"; "Written Language"; "On the Role of Explanation and Transcription"; and Teacher Preparation and Training." (Appendices cover topic areas, communicative functions, concepts, and contain a glossary.) (KFT)

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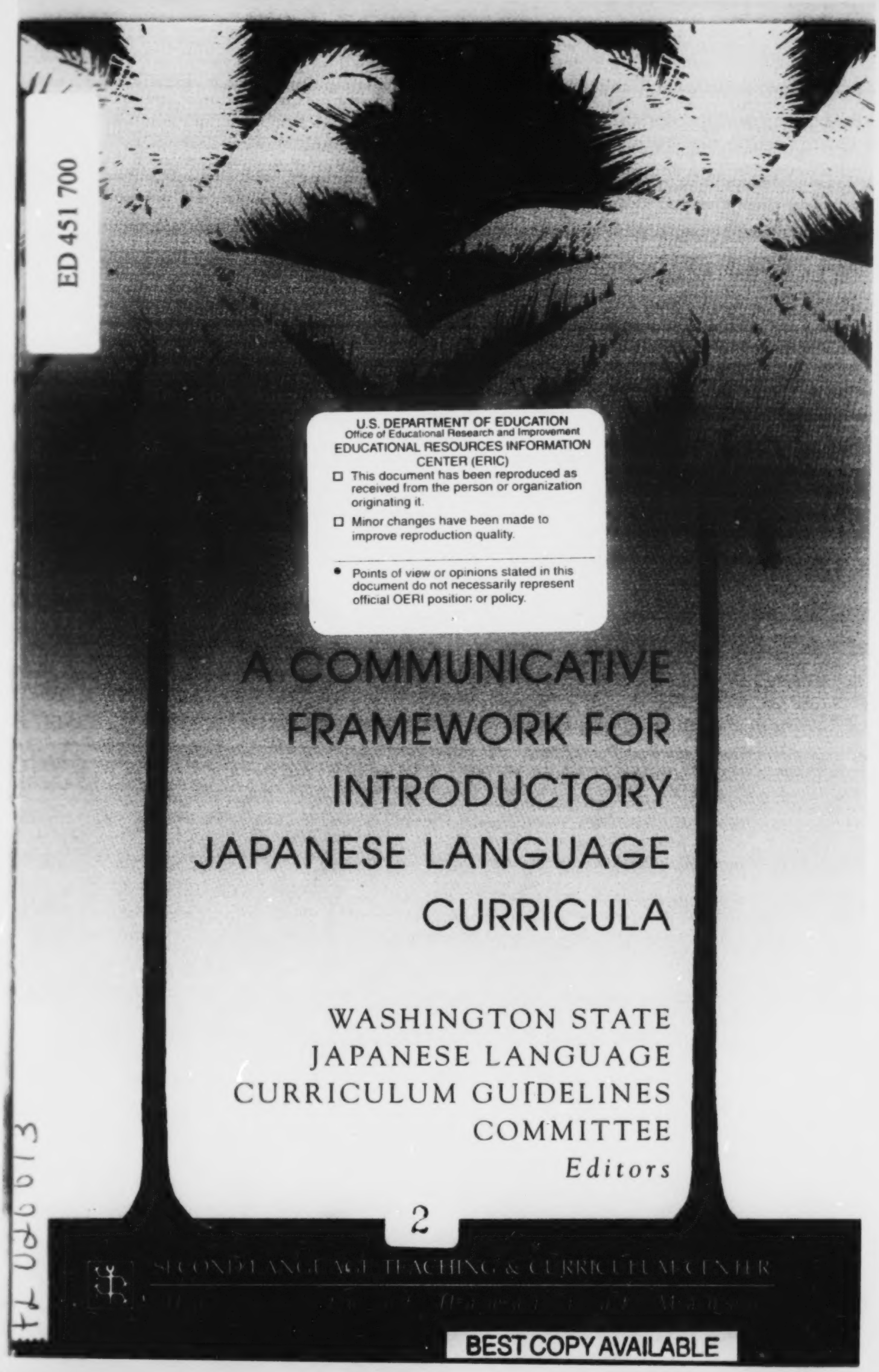

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A COMMUNICATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR INTRODUCTORY JAPANESE LANGUAGE CURRICULA

WASHINGTON STATE
JAPANESE LANGUAGE
CURRICULUM GUIDELINES
COMMITTEE
Editors

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SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING & CURRICULUM CENTER
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TECHNICAL REPORT #20

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WASHINGTON STATE JAPANESE LANGUAGE
CURRICULUM GUIDELINES COMMITTEE

SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING & CURRICULUM CENTER
University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

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ABOUT THE NATIONAL FOREIGN LANGUAGE RESOURCE CENTER

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This volume is a revised edition of a document entitled *A Communicative Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Instruction in Washington State High Schools*, first published in 1994 by the Washington State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. The present edition is intended to make that work more generally available to assist teachers and professional associations throughout the United States in designing Japanese language curricula.

The project that produced this volume has been in itself a remarkable venture. It has involved collaborative efforts of representatives of secondary education, community colleges, universities, and, in its later stages, the private sector throughout Washington State. Most important, members of the committee and three reaction panels were able to transcend their not inconsiderable methodological differences to arrive at a robust consensus about the core content of the Japanese language curriculum — a consensus that will, we hope, be the basis for improved standards of Japanese language instruction in Washington State and elsewhere.

After the initial publication of this work, the guidelines project entered a new dissemination phase focusing on two summer institutes held at the University of Puget Sound in 1995 and 1996, and a series of workshops. The institutes attracted participants from throughout the United States, as well as from Canada and Japan. Input and feedback received in the course of these programs have done much to help us focus our efforts, and are reflected in the revisions made in this edition.

Much of the discussion in herein and the content of the appendices has been adapted from J. A. van Ek's *Threshold level for modern language learning in schools* (1976). We are extremely grateful to the Council of Europe for permitting us to incorporate major elements of that seminal work into our own. The Council's permission does not imply its endorsement and we remain solely responsible for the content of this volume.

The breadth and depth of support for this project has been wholly gratifying to all of us who have worked on the committee. Indeed, we have been indebted to so many organizations and individuals in the course of this second phase that it may be impossible to give credit to everyone. Judith A Billings, then Washington State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alfred Rasp, Jr., Director of Assessment and Integrated Curriculum, and David Kennedy, Program Administrator, Integrated Curriculum, were instrumental in enabling the first edition to be published. In addition, the Washington State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction made available a Title VI 15% Innovative Projects Grant, without which the first Summer Institute would not have been possible. The US-Japan Foundation provided generous and extended support over the three years of the second phase, and the Japan Foundation came through with a crucial grant that allowed us to hold the second institute in the summer of 1996. We are also grateful for funding support from the North-East Asia Council of the Association of Asian Studies, the Washington Association of Teachers of Japanese, the Laurasian Institution, and last, but by no means least, the East Asia Resource Center of the University of Washington.

In addition, we have benefited from the efforts of Professor Michio Tsutsui of the University of Washington Technical Japanese Program and his staff, who helped disseminate this work to a national audience by placing the text of the first edition on their program Website.

One of the perils of being an ad hoc volunteer group is that we had no standing as a recognizable entity for the purposes of receiving funding. We were immensely fortunate, therefore, that the Japan-America Society of the State of Washington (JASSW) was willing to provide its good offices for the administration of grants for the implementation of the second phase. We would like to extend special thanks to Susan Mochizuki, former Executive Director of the JASSW, and to Geoff Froh, Ingrid Martin, Martha Robens, and other staff members of JASSW for their assistance with grant management and administration of this project and its Website.

Members of the committee profited from interactions with JALEX training programs of the Laurasian Institution, in which the earlier edition of this work has been used. We would like to thank the Laurasian Institution for, having succeeded in hiring our project coordinator away from us, letting us keep Mari Maruyama for a little while longer.

The many participants and facilitators at the two summer institutes also provided valuable input. The committee would also like to thank Carolyn Edwards, Carl Falsgraf, Masaki Kamiya, Emiko Konomi, Norman Masuda, Beth McGibbon, Shigeru Miyagawa, Yoshimi Nagaya, and Stephanie Rush, who assisted as facilitators or guest lecturers. The experience gained in those workshops will benefit teacher training in our state for years to come.

Numerous others have assisted us along the way. We would like to thank the Consul-General of Japan, Mr. Toshio Yoshida, and his successor, Mr. Naotoshi Sugiuchi, for their active support for our project and Japanese language instruction in this state. We would like to extend our appreciation to other members of the consulate staff, in particular, Mr. Masaki Nakatsu, who on one occasion graciously opened up his home for a committee meeting. We also received a great deal of support and encouragement from Mary Hammond Bernson of the East Asia Center of the University of Washington.

Our appreciation goes to our two outside evaluators, Hiroko Kataoka and Yasuhiko Tohsaku, for their time and valuable input and support. Hisae Kobayashi provided an extensive list of corrections to the inventories in The appendices. Comments by John Mertz significantly improved the chapter on reading.

We thank the University of Hawai'i National Foreign Language Center for enabling this document to be made available in its present form, and especially Deborah Masterson for her patience in awaiting a long-overdue manuscript, for her work in editing this volume, and for her forbearance in the nightmarish task of formatting the tables in The appendices.

A special thanks goes to all the teachers of Washington State and Oregon who provided input to the Washington State Guidelines Committee, and who took part in reaction panel meetings, participated in institutes and workshops, permitted their classes to be observed, or provided feedback at professional gatherings. Without your enthusiasm for change this work would not have been possible.

Finally, I would like to slip into first person singular. This volume is unrelated to my present employment with Microsoft Corporation, whose views are not reflected in its pages. For a number of years, it has been my great privilege to collaborate with a committed group of people willing to put in long hours of their own time to improve the quality of Japanese language teaching in their State. Some must be singled out for special mention: Leslie Birkland, Mayumi Smith, and Masashi Kato, who first saw the need for guidelines, though I doubt they knew in those early days what they were getting into; Michio Tsutsui, with whom I unexpectedly discovered I shared much common ground; the indefatigable Yasuko Wada, who joined our committee as advisor, and who by dint of her energy and enthusiasm, quickly became a core member; Sandy Mizuno, Stacey Pruss, Kim Roberts, and Taeko Tashibu, who provided many insights from the trenches; and Mari Maruyama, who continued to work with us long after all obligation had ended. This volume stands as the culmination your collective efforts. During the course of this project, our lives and careers have changed, greatly in some cases, but always, it seems, for the better in the end. In all this, your commitment and friendship has been constant, and an immense source of strength and encouragement. I am confident that the future of Japanese language instruction in Washington State is in good hands. And last, finally, I would like to thank my wife, Yuri, and my sons, Michael and Stephen, for their love and support, and for enduring it all.

Chris Brockett
Bellevue, Washington

FOREWORD TO THE ORIGINAL EDITION

Until about seven or eight years ago, Japanese was taught in only a few Washington state schools, predominantly in Western Washington. However, recently, the number of schools offering Japanese has increased dramatically. Numerous classes including satellite programs are being offered all over the state. Currently, Washington leads the nation in the number of Japanese classes offered at the secondary level. A major reason for the increase in the popularity of Japanese is due to a renewed interest in trade between the Pacific Northwest and Asia.

Because of the tremendous popularity of Japanese language and the shortage of teachers, quite a few untrained, non-native and native teachers are in the classrooms and are expected to teach several levels of Japanese.

A large number of teachers have unequivocally expressed a definite need for a set of guidelines. Japanese has been taught using a variety of texts, methods, philosophies and materials. The teacher, at his or her own discretion, has decided somewhat arbitrarily the amount of grammar, *kanji*, and culture necessary to cover at each level. Without any guidelines on which to base ones teachings, teachers have been "doing their own thing" in hopes that the material covered is adequate.

Four years ago, the charter committee members decided to begin tackling this enormous project. With the invaluable assistance of the numerous individuals and organizations acknowledged herein, we are pleased to present the Washington State Japanese language teachers with a document which they have helped to produce.

These guidelines are meant to serve simply as a framework from which language teaching can be expanded and is intended to allow teachers to use it to help enhance and strengthen the quality of Japanese language instruction in Washington state schools.

The committee would like to thank the Hyogo Cultural Center, especially Takeo Terahata and Reiko Asano, for their generous financial support and use of their facility during the early stages of this project. Our thanks also go to the initial Reaction Panel members: Chuck Fletcher, Tumwater High School; Pat Flynn, Hudson's Bay High School; Susan Greenwood, Toledo High School; Becky Hall, Port Angeles High School; Ann Irish, Vashon Island School District; Mitzi Kerwein, Lewis and Clark High School; Beth McGibbon, Shadle Park High School; Jim Mockford, Camas High School; Mitsuko Okada, Seattle Preparatory; Darryl Smart, Davis High School; Atsumi Tsukimori, Educational Service District 101; and Geri VanZanten, Bellingham School District.

We would also like to recognize Nancy Motomatsu, Joe Dial, and Wolfgang Hirsch of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for their support in organizing and coordinating the many earlier meetings which included representatives from various community colleges and universities in Washington state. We thank Terry Weston of Bellevue Community College and Michiko Yusa of Western Washington University for their input and time. We also appreciate the interest shown by the Japanese Consulate General by sending Rika Matsubara to attend our meetings occasionally.

The generous support from the United States-Japan Foundation, the Japan Foundation, The Laurasian Institution, and the East Asia Resource Center allows this committee to move forward with the implementation stage of this project. Without such support, we would not have been able to carry on. We are indeed grateful.

The committee also thanks Susan Mochizuki, the Executive Director of the Japan-America Society of the State of Washington, and Mary Hammond Bernson, Assistant Director of the East Asia Resource Center at the University of Washington, for co-sponsoring the training and workshop activities that will follow from this guidelines project.

Thanks also to the Lake Washington School District, we thank you for providing a facility for the last several Reaction Panel Meetings. To the principals and school districts of our Reaction Panel Members, we are grateful to you for releasing your teachers to attend these meetings. To OSPI and Yumi Toma, the Washington State Japanese Language Consultant, we thank you for making it possible for teachers to attend the more recent Reaction Panel meetings.

To the 1993–1994 Reaction Panel Members: Naomi Aleman, Olympic High School; Susan Greenwood, Toledo High School; Ann Irish, Vashon Island School District; Mitzi Kerwein, Lewis and Clark High School; Bob Koch, Meadowdale High School; Beth McGibbon, Shadle Park High School; Jim Mockford, Camas High School; Mary Jo O'Donnell, Forest Ridge High School; Mitsuko Okada, Seattle Preparatory; Jon Perrotti, Stadium High School; Kim Roberts, Juanita High School; and Atsumi Tsukimori, Educational Service District 101.

The committee is especially grateful to Dr. Hiroko Kataoka for her extensive comments on our initial draft. We would also like to thank the many teachers who wrote many pages of detailed comments on various aspects of the guidelines, and Mari Maruyama who proofread the narrative portion of this document. The support we have received over the years from the membership of the Washington Association for Language Teaching has been very much appreciated as well.

Last but not least, each member of the committee would like to express our thanks to our spouses and families for their infinite patience, understanding, and support over the past four years of this enormous undertaking.

Leslie Okada Birkland
Masashi Kato
Mayumi Nishiyama Smith

ABOUT THE USE OF LATIN SCRIPT

Latin alphabetic script (*romaji*) is used throughout this volume, primarily for typographic convenience for publication within the United States, but also to make this volume more accessible to administrators, school board members, and others who cannot read Japanese. The use of Latin script does not constitute a recommendation that Japanese be taught in *romaji.* It is hoped that an eventual Japanese language edition of this work will remedy any problems this presents for native speakers of Japanese.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

ABOUT THIS VOLUME

The 1990s witnessed spectacular growth of Japanese language instruction in United States secondary schools. One study even suggests that by mid-decade the number of high school students studying Japanese had begun to outstrip the number studying the language in four-year colleges (Japan Foundation, 1995, p. 2). Consequently, Japanese has been propelled into a position unprecedented in the history of foreign language education in this country. Never before have so many secondary school students encountered in their classrooms a living language and culture so unlike that of their own. In learning Japanese, students acquire an understanding how another society organizes itself through its language and culture and learn to formulate their thoughts and interactions through new modes of expression. Their learning experience is often quite different from that of learners of European languages that are cognate with English. Japanese language teachers frequently find themselves facing challenges that differ significantly from those encountered by their colleagues teaching the commonly taught European languages. Moreover, since Japanese language instruction is a relatively recent phenomenon in most states, the majority of teachers in this country still work in the absence of well-formulated, well-motivated, state or local curricula. The present work represents an attempt by Japanese language teachers in Washington State to remedy this gap by specifying standards of instructional content and student performance that are comprehensive, explicit, and achievable.

This work is not itself a curriculum. It should be read as a resource document — as a tool for building curricula that will allow students to achieve functional communication skills in Japanese. It is divided into two parts, following a schema employed by van Ek (1976) in developing language curricula for the Council of Europe. The first part presents a general discussion of goals, principles, and assumptions, and identifies a range of communicative skills in Japanese that students should acquire by the end of a coherent introductory course of study of three or four years' duration at the secondary level. The first chapter delineates the objectives, scope, and institutional implications of this work as an instrument for curricular, instructional, and professional development, and is intended to assist teachers and administrators in interpreting this volume. The second chapter addresses principles and assumptions that motivate this work. chapters 3 through 6 present linguistic objectives for instruction in spoken and written Japanese and criteria for assessment of student learning.

The second part is intended to be a reference for the teacher in the classroom as well as for curriculum developers. The appendices consist of detailed inventories that translate general descriptors in the first part into specific grammatical patterns and vocabulary that meet two criteria: they are associated with the targeted communication skills and they are appropriate to programs at the secondary level. Adapted from the inventories in van Ek (1976), with significant modification for Japanese, the content of these inventories represents a consensus developed by Japanese language professionals in Washington State concerning what linguistic material might constitute the common core of the curriculum. It is intended that it should be possible for secondary school students to master this material to a useful level of functionality.

THE EMERGENCE OF STANDARDS

This work has come about in the context of a growing awareness among U.S. language teaching professionals of the need for better defined standards in foreign language instruction. The need has been especially evident in the field of Japanese language instruction, where the pressures of the growth of Japanese language enrollments in the late 1980s and early 1990s spawned several important efforts to codify standards for Japanese language instruction—most notably those of Oregon (Falsgraf, 1997), Washington (this volume), and Wisconsin (Sandrock & Yoshiki, 1996). These local projects, undertaken either under the auspices of state education authorities or by independent groups of teachers, have paralleled discourse on language curriculum issues at the national level. In 1993, the National Foreign Language Center of Johns Hopkins University issued a report by Unger, Lorish, Noda, and Wada entitled *A Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in American High Schools and Colleges* which defines many of the key issues in formulating Japanese language curricula for American classrooms. More recently, the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, spearheaded by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, released its *National Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*, a document that breaks new ground in articulating nationwide professional standards for foreign language instruction analogous with those in other subject fields.[1] Such national-level documents, however, leave the primary task of developing language curricula to state and local initiatives and do not address the fundamental question of *what to teach* at a level of specificity that translates readily into classroom practice.

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[1] The Association of Teachers of Japanese has undertaken a project to develop standards based on the report of the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. Released in September 1998, the ATJ standards were in draft form at the time of revision. These standards employ a number of assumptions that have not been adopted here, most

The present work attempts to situate itself somewhere between this national-level discourse and the fine-grained year-by-year curricula that will need to be created by groups of teachers and professional associations if realistic standards are to be implemented. It should be read as a conceptual framework for designing specific curricular sequences, making pedagogical recommendations, and developing ancillary teaching materials and assessment tools. Its content is likely to be controversial: it has explicitly not been our purpose to codify an existing mediocrity, but to set standards that are pedagogically desirable and that, with the collaborative effort of the teaching community, may reasonably be within reach. Its authors hope it will serve as catalyst for constructive professional discourse about the goals, content, and methods of introductory Japanese language instruction.

WHO SHOULD READ THIS WORK

TEACHERS

If you are a teacher of Japanese, or intend to become a teacher of Japanese, this volume is written for you. It has not been written as an academic treatise, but to inform collaborative efforts to develop curricula by practicing teachers who will presumably be the principal architects of the Japanese language curriculum in their jurisdictions. It is also intended to inform the classroom practice of individual teachers, since even the best-designed curricular projects will entail significant lead times before they can be produced, evaluated and effectively implemented.

In this work, we have attempted to present a conceptual framework by which teachers may better understand the totality of what they are trying to achieve in the classroom, so that they can

- design curricula and class syllabuses, both individually and in collaboration with colleagues;
- select textbooks and supplementary materials on the basis of well-founded criteria;
- plan lessons and design instructional activities, classroom props and materials. In particular, the inventories in the appendices are intended to provide teachers with perspectives on the communicative use of language that may not be found in currently-available textbooks and grammar resources;

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notably, the assumption that students begin their Japanese language learning in the elementary school and continue through middle school and high school.

- articulate the goals and needs of programs and curricula to administrators, parents, and students. Much of the success of a program may rest on the teacher's ability to communicate to others what the program seeks or does not seek to achieve;
- determine needs for ancillary support from school districts and the community in order to provide students with opportunities for contact with speakers of Japanese, as well as for audio, audio-visual, and multi-media materials; and
- determine needs for personal professional enhancement through programs to develop language and teaching skills and through opportunities for networking.

Although this work is primarily targeted at high school teachers, its authors hope it will also find a readership among teachers in middle schools and community colleges, who share many of the same issues with their high school counterparts. We believe most of the content of this volume can be extended with minor modification to accommodate the age groups, interests, and communicative needs of students at these other institutions.

ADMINISTRATORS

Teachers and teachers' organizations will need to work closely with school boards, principals and other administrators in planning for, supervising, and supporting Japanese language instruction to approximate the standards presented in this volume. For this reason, this volume is also targeted at administrators. We hope that it will help decision-makers come to recognize that the teaching and learning of Japanese in the high school is a different proposition from teaching and learning the more commonly taught European languages, and that principles, expectations, and traditions of instruction derived from these cognate languages do not necessarily transfer.[2] Administrators who appreciate the challenges of Japanese language teaching will be in a better position to create a classroom environment where students enjoy the rich experience of becoming functional in a language and culture that is distinct from European languages and cultures commonly taught in United States classrooms.

The first two chapters of this work should be of particular relevance to administrators when they

- establish new Japanese language programs on the basis of a sound understanding of the dimensions of the task — with reasonable expectations that are neither excessively high, nor excessively low about what is possible in Japanese language instruction in high schools;

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[2] Administrators should acquaint themselves with Japanese Language Instruction in the United States: Resources, Practice, and Investment Strategy by Eleanor H. Jorden, with Richard D. Lambert (1991), the first comprehensive nation-wide study of problems and issues of Japanese language teaching at all levels.

- evaluate the effectiveness of Japanese language programs and their outcomes, and determine what modifications need to be made or additional resources allocated to assist their programs reach targeted outcomes;
- determine appropriate qualifications for teachers when considering hiring and promotions; and
- provide ancillary resources, funding, and support services, both for classroom instruction and professional networking and enhancement.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

What to teach? In this volume we have sought to frame an extended answer to this fundamental question in terms of what we would like learners to be able to do in Japanese. At the end of an introductory program of instruction in the Japanese language, we believe students should

- communicate accurately in spoken Japanese in face-to-face situations involving Japanese native speakers either in Japan or in the United States in simple, typical conversations;
- utilize a basic understanding of the culture of Japan to make informed choices about how to interact linguistically and socially with Japanese speakers;
- read and write Japanese at a level consistent with their skills in the spoken language; and
- possess a sound foundation for continued learning of Japanese, through formal or informal study, while working or studying in their own country or Japan.

We will refine these broad objectives in this volume in terms of standards for communicative proficiency that can be constructed from a set of explicit, pedagogically-motivated linguistic components. Borrowing the terminology of van Ek (1976), this proficiency might be termed "threshold-level Japanese." For practical purposes, this can be regarded as a minimum level of proficiency at which learners begin to communicate usefully to themselves and to those with whom they interact in Japanese.

The standards represented by this communicative proficiency have several characteristics. First, they are defined in terms of the anticipated communication needs of the students. We have sought to avoid merely codifying existing Japanese language teaching practices and textbook content and, in particular, have resisted the pressures to subordinate the high school curriculum to existing college course structures — the motivations for which are all too often underexamined. Since the goals of Japanese language instruction in secondary schools are not necessarily those of the four-year colleges, and since not all students who learn Japanese at high school will continue their education at such institutions, rather than base standards on external criteria that may be pedagogically ill-motivated or irrelevant, we have tried to spell out standards which are pedagogically and linguistically valid, and are rooted in the communication needs of a broad spectrum of students in real-life situations they are likely to encounter.

The standards are intended to be explicit and measurable. This work focuses quite narrowly on the linguistic content of instruction and does not devote a great deal of space to addressing more general affective or developmental objectives commonly found in curricular documents. We have sought to identify priorities for Japanese language instruction that will allow the development of rigorous, explicit, attainable curricula. By directing attention to what students should be able to do using Japanese and defining the components of a basic functional proficiency, we have tried to avoid stipulations that may be so elusive as to be unimplementable or meaningless as a guide to teachers and administrators, or that may detract teachers and students from more clearly identifiable, achievable objectives. In plain language, phrases such as "appreciate Japanese culture" are meaningless as standards — they cannot be assessed.

The standards are intended to be methodologically independent. This volume does not mandate a specific sequence of instruction or methodology, nor does it preclude the possibility of a variety of modes of instruction, including immersion programs, interactions with other subject areas, and subject-based language instruction. Though the authors hail from a variety of methodological persuasions, we believe that we have achieved in this volume a consensus on a minimal professional standard for a core curriculum, applicable to all Japanese language programs whatever their other accomplishments or methodology.

Finally, no attempt will be made in this volume to define year-by-year curricula or performance levels (benchmarks). The shape of first- and second-year classes, in particular, is profoundly affected by decisions about matters such as when to introduce the writing system, which script to begin with, and which styles of speech to teach first. Local conditions and goals may reasonably differ from district to district, and school to school. Factors such as the availability of native speakers may determine which speech styles are taught first. A school that regularly sends students to Japan or hosts Japanese exchange students might well design a curriculum that accommodates and builds upon these activities, and requires a different instructional sequence from neighboring schools that do not have such programs. Local program goals will thus be a major determinant of what is to be taught at what level, and curricula will need to allow for sufficient flexibility to accommodate those goals.

LEARNERS

It will be assumed for the most part that learners are high school students in mid to late adolescence. One of the major challenges of implementation will be to provide instruction and materials that match the intellectual, emotional, and social development of students in this age group. Styles of language will need to be taught which reasonably approximate those employed by their same-age Japanese peers, as well as those associated with adult language skills. Since the students' Japanese peers are themselves in a transitional stage between childhood and adult language, curricula will need to take account of social and maturational considerations in language use.

It should be further noted that the present framework explicitly targets all high school students, not just those bound for four-year colleges. A student who has mastered the curricular content set out in this document will have skills in Japanese that are functionally useful, even if he or she does not proceed to a four-year college. Although one of our objectives is to ensure that students have a firm basis for future learning, it is not an objective of the Japanese language curriculum to directly prepare students for college programs. However, those colleges and universities whose Japanese language programs have well-specified, pedagogically well-motivated curricula will be well-positioned to accommodate students who complete high school programs with strong linguistic preparation characterized by realistic expectations about learning Japanese, and functional communicative skills. Accordingly, this document may be construed as a statement by language professionals of what they believe to be desirable and eventually achievable within a high school framework: its role in articulation should be to allow institutions of higher education to understand, accommodate, and build constructively upon, the backgrounds of the growing numbers of students entering with prior high school training in Japanese.

Although the discussion in this volume is couched primarily in terms of high school students and their learning needs, much will be generally applicable to the curricula of two-year programs offered by community colleges. Community college students, in general, represent a more mature segment of the population than the high school students and their classes may contain a significant number of working adults. The communication needs of these students will differ from those of high school students, and it will be appropriate that the curriculum include forms of language suited to business and workplace interactions.

ENTRY POINTS AND TIME FRAMES

Unlike the ACTFL National Standards, this work does not assume that students enter high school with prior knowledge of Japanese acquired in elementary and middle school. It instead assumes that secondary school students enter Japanese language programs in the ninth grade and continue to study the language throughout high school. The standards specified in this volume should be attainable in a four-year program of high school language instruction consisting of five 50-minute periods a week. Under exceptionally good classroom conditions, characterized by strong institutional support, the content of this volume may be achievable within three years.

In a community college program, it is expected that the proficiencies represented in this volume can be attained without difficulty within a two-year sequence.

It is likely that entry points for Japanese language instruction will be pushed downwards as more students commence their language studies in middle school. We are already seeing serious local efforts to introduce Japanese (and other foreign) language instruction in the middle school in school districts in Washington State. With adjustment of content consistent with the age of the learners, principles of this document should prove readily extendible to middle school instruction.

CHAPTER TWO

PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES

We have based the curricular framework in this volume on five fundamental principles:

1. Language is for communication.
2. Students will have occasion to use Japanese, either in Japan or in the United States.
3. High school students can acquire a useful communicative competence.
4. Speaking and listening have priority over reading and writing.
5. Japanese should be taught in its cultural context.

In the first five sections of this chapter, we consider each of these principles and examine their impact on curricular priorities. The sixth section introduces the Threshold-Level strategy that we have adopted to address the instructional issues that arise out of these principles.

LANGUAGE IS FOR COMMUNICATION

Our central tenet in this work is that the primary function of language is communication. "Communication," for our purposes, refers broadly to any kind of linguistic interaction between people, including, but not limited to, transmitting and receiving information, engaging in transactions (for example, getting people to do things, or agreeing to do things), and maintaining interpersonal relations. In order to answer the question "What to teach?" that we asked in the first chapter, we must first determine the answer to a more basic question: Why do we teach Japanese? Our community's answer is that we teach Japanese because our society values the ability to engage in communication with Japanese speakers and the access that this provides to what Japanese speakers and their society have to offer the world.

The primary purpose of learning a foreign language is to become able to engage in communication with human beings who belong to a different culture and speak a different language, *in their language*. An important component of learning to speak a foreign language is learning to formulate one's thoughts and interactions through the modes of expression of a different language and culture. Reinventing and rediscovering oneself and ones' own values are part of that experience. Although we may set as one of our goals the acquisition of a foundation for future learning, we do not teach Japanese to achieve purely abstract goals or simply to teach *about* the language. Japanese, therefore, should not be taught as an arbitrary discipline or as an academic exercise in preparation for learning that will take place in the future, such as placing students in higher level courses in colleges or universities. The principal objective of the curriculum should be to structure instruction to permit students to achieve sufficient competence in the language that they can communicate usefully with speakers of Japanese.

The principle that language is for communication has long been evident to students and the general public. Jorden and Lambert (1991) found that 49 percent of high school students they polled indicated that they would like to see more spoken language in their program, twice the percentages who indicated other preferences. The conclusion to be drawn is clear: if teachers wish to keep students motivated, instruction should target the acquisition of useful communication skills. Japanese teachers are clearly increasingly aware of the need to reorient: a recent survey by The Laurasian Institution (1996, p. 38) indicates that a majority of teachers now favors prioritizing spoken language skills. However, in the absence of well-defined, well-founded curricula designed to foster the acquisition of communicative skills in the language, syllabuses and methodologies have been apt to be less than conducive to this goal.

If teachers are to teach for communication and students are to acquire any level of communicative competence in Japanese, curricular content, instructional techniques, and assessment methods will need to reflect the goals and components of communicative linguistic interaction. Curriculum, classroom instruction, and assessment will need to address not only form (i.e., what grammatical patterns or vocabulary are used), but function (i.e., how the language is used by its speakers). To ensure that communication is properly located as the centerpiece of instruction, teachers will need to

1. teach spoken language. Curriculum, instruction and assessment should focus on the spoken language, since this is the primary mode of interpersonal communication. This priority is further reinforced by the difficulties posed to learners by the Japanese writing system. See the section *Teach Language in Culture* for discussion of the writing system and its limitations as source language for instruction.

2. teach authentic language. Teaching spoken language implies teaching authentic language. Students should not be taught an artificial or textbook language that bears little relation to the language of everyday communication used by Japanese speakers. This means, for example, that the spoken forms *ja arimasen* and *ja nai desu* ('isn't') are to be preferred over a form like *de wa arimasen* ('is not') which is more typical of written language and formal prepared speech. Issues relating to authenticity are discussed in greater detail in chapter 5.
3. teach Japanese in context. A corollary of authenticity is contextualization. Authentic language may involve omission of information that can be recovered from the context of the discourse or the physical situation. Choice of grammatical and affective particles is determined by context and cannot be taught as isolated patterns. It is improbable that students will succeed in learning to understand or use authentic Japanese on the basis of a decontextualized language. Other issues related to context are discussed further in chapter 5.
4. teach language in culture. Authentic, contextualized language entails that students will also need to learn culturally appropriate use of language. Social and interpersonal distance are expressed in Japanese by grammatical choices. Students will need to learn how to say what to whom, and when it is appropriate to say it.

STUDENTS WILL USE JAPANESE

A second fundamental principle is that students who learn to communicate in Japanese will have occasion to use those skills in the near future, if not in Japan, then in the United States. Indeed, it is unlikely that we will succeed at the task of teaching students to communicate in Japanese unless we are willing to assume that this is the case. Conversely, if students lack the requisite competencies, we make it less likely that opportunities to communicate will arise, and less likely that they will be able to make the most of such opportunities when they do arise. It is well documented that learners are motivated by the recognition that what they learn will be relevant and valuable to them in the future. By endowing students with a viable communicative competence, we give them the confidence to seek out opportunities for exchanges with native speakers that further enhance their language skills.

A starting point for developing that confidence is to identify common situations where students may need or want to interact with speakers of Japanese. These situations can form the basis for determining core linguistic content of the curriculum. Two areas of communicative need that can be identified as being of particular value, and therefore appropriate as foci for the Japanese language curriculum are

1. communicative skills for short-term travel or study in Japan, including brief stays in Japanese homes; and

2. communicative skills for simple linguistic interactions with Japanese speakers in the local community, including teachers, visiting exchange students, tourists, business people, and house guests.

These communicative skills primarily relate to proficiency in spoken language. The curriculum will need to identify the topics that might be discussed on such occasions, the kinds of interactions that might take place, the people with whom students might interact, and the roles that students might play in those interactions.

- *Topics*. Topics are likely to be general in nature and may not be exclusively related to Japan. It should not be assumed that students will necessarily interact with Japanese speakers only in Japan, since it is also likely that students will have opportunities to meet and interact with Japanese speakers in the United States. This is particularly true in Washington State and other Pacific-rim states, where extensive trade and business, educational and tourist ties have resulted in the frequent movement of individuals and families from both sides of the Pacific. Students will need to have the vocabulary to engage in communication about things in the United States (including themselves) and topics of local interest.
- *Interactions*. Not all linguistic interactions will involve transmission of declarative facts. Many are likely to be transactional, involving getting people to do things, responding to requests and invitations, or obtaining goods and services. Learners can also expect to have to maintain relationships with others (both their peers and adults), and will need to develop the affective and interpersonal skills that will enable them to do so.
- *People*. Since it will be particularly important to prepare students to interact at a personal level with their peers in Japan, the curriculum will need to take into account the age of the student and the styles of language used by their counterparts in Japan. It will be important that high school students learn to interact linguistically with adults (students on exchange programs are likely to find themselves having to interact with community leaders in Japan) and are prepared for the transition to adult use of language.
- *Roles*. The kinds of roles that students might commonly play in interacting with Japanese speakers will also need to be addressed. Some common roles include friend-friend, guest-host, student-teacher, and buyer-seller. While it may be less likely that students at the high school level need to be prepared immediately for the role of employee or supervisor, community college curricula should reflect this possibility.

STUDENTS *CAN* ACQUIRE A USEFUL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The third primary assumption of this document is specific to high school instruction: namely, given properly formulated educational objectives and well implemented techniques and strategies to achieve those objectives, it is possible for students to acquire a useful communicative competence in the Japanese language *while they are in high school.* It is not immediately obvious how this can be achieved, since the timelines for learning Japanese are significantly longer than those for other languages commonly taught in high schools. The Foreign Service Institute (FSI) has estimated that it takes approximately three times as long to attain a minimum professional level of competence in Japanese as it does in French or Spanish (1,320 classroom hours under ideal conditions as opposed to 480 for French or Spanish [Omaggio, 1986, p. 21]). These numbers support the common observation that, for learners whose base language is English, the experience of learning Japanese is quite different from that of learning French, Spanish, or other European languages. There is no cognate basic vocabulary or grammatical similarity to aid the learner in the learning process, and Japanese pragmatic usage presents countless pitfalls for the unwary learner, who cannot rely on the assumptions of a common European culture. Moreover, the writing system (to be addressed in the next section) poses significant cognitive challenges for the learner. What is important here is not that Japanese is more difficult or takes longer to learn than Spanish or French, but that standards and approaches employed in teaching European languages may be inappropriate to teaching Japanese. Attempting to cover what is commonly handled in a French or Spanish syllabus will predictably result in poor absorption of the material, high levels of frustration on the part of both students and teachers, and high attrition rates. It is unreasonable to expect students of Japanese to be as far along in three or four years of high school study as their counterparts learning European languages.

The longer time line for learning Japanese means that sequencing decisions significantly determine the shape of the curriculum in the first and second years and make connections with other disciplines harder to establish, since student skill levels will not permit them to utilize many target language resources. None of the above should be allowed to discourage students from attempting to achieve personal enrichment through discovery of a language and culture that is very different from the students' own.

What are needed are new objectives and pedagogical strategies that take cognizance of the dimensions of the task. If our goal is to teach students to communicate successfully in Japanese, we must assume that they are able to reach some useful level of proficiency during the course of their language program. The strategy by which we propose to achieve this is essentially one of "less is more," that is, a strategy which focuses on quality of instruction, and not on the quantity of grammatical patterns or *kanji* (Chinese characters) that are taught. The curriculum should identify a relatively limited set of linguistic components of communication and seek to maximize mastery of those components so that students acquire a functional competence in Japanese that begins to be useful to themselves and those around them, even though their repertoires of grammatical patterns and vocabulary may not be very large. This does not mean a lowering of standards: as the proficiency criteria in chapter 4 indicate, these represent a high standard of student achievement that will prove quite amply challenging to teachers and students.

SPEAKING AND LISTENING HAVE PRIORITY

The fourth core principle is that speaking and listening should be given priority over reading and writing. This principle flows in part from the focal role that communication plays in this framework, and in part from the fact that the Japanese writing system imposes serious constraints on teaching practices. Since educational traditions both in Japan and in the United States have historically associated learning and education with the acquisition of written language, the proposition that written language has less priority will doubtless be controversial. However, all parties — teachers, administrators, parents, and the learner — must recognize that the Japanese written language poses challenges of a kind and a degree that are not encountered by American students learning languages written in the Latin alphabet, and that these challenges seriously affect what can be achieved in the Japanese language classroom. Even the choice of which of these scripts to teach first may have a profound short-term impact on the curriculum, since it will define what else is taught and when in the first and second years.

The student of Japanese faces the task of learning two sets of 46 syllabic characters (*hiragana* and *katakana*), together with over 2000 *kanji* (Chinese characters) which must be mastered for full comprehension of modern written texts. Unlike students of French or German, who have to learn to associate familiar letters with unfamiliar sounds, and for whom the visual processing of these orthographic symbols is relatively automatic, students of Japanese must first learn to recognize new character sets as symbols of language and then become able to process the orthography with enough automaticity to efficiently interpret and act upon the information. *Kanji* characters pose additional difficulties, since the symbol-sound relationship of these symbols is neither one-to-one nor fully predictable. The learner of Japanese has little hope of determining the pronunciation of an unfamiliar *kanji* word without resorting to tedious legwork with a dictionary — a considerable skill in its own right. Texts containing unfamiliar *kanji* are likely to be perceived by the learner as a sea of opaque symbols from which little or no sense can be extracted. It does not help the learner, moreover, that the Japanese writing system lacks white-space word division to indicate where word boundaries lie.

Reading involves more than just decipherment of characters. It entails that the learner comprehends a text, a task which demands that the symbols of the writing system be integrated as words, which must be processed together with grammatical information, and knowledge of the subject matter, the real world, and the writer's background assumptions. Grammatical and stylistic conventions of the written language are markedly different from those of spoken language. Formal writing, especially, draws on twelve centuries of written tradition, exhibiting archaic grammatical features that have no counterpart in the spoken language. As a result, acquisition of adult-like written-language skills by non-native learners of Japanese takes many more years than is required in the commonly taught European languages. Even at the college level, students entering their fourth year of study (after about 450 classroom contact hours) typically lack the skills to read a newspaper with any real facility. The practice of having students read novels or short stories in the original language, as is sometimes possible in advanced classes in the European languages, is not a viable proposition at the high school or community college level, and thus should not form part of the curriculum.[3] Students of Japanese should not be expected to perform written language tasks at the same level of sophistication as their peers studying the commonly taught European languages, and since most source materials written in Japanese will be inaccessible to students, it will not always be easy to establish connections with other disciplines.

Expectations, instructional foci and pedagogical strategies must accommodate the very real constraints imposed by the Japanese written language. It will not be efficient to learn the language via the medium of written media. If we attempt to teach written language with the objective of having students become able to read newspapers or magazines, not only will we have to forego trying to teach students to communicate in the spoken language, we will also certainly be unsuccessful in the attempt to teach students to read, with the result that students may abandon their Japanese language studies in frustration before attaining a functional level of skill in either spoken or written language. Accordingly, the strategy that we propose here is that we should focus on teaching what can be taught most successfully within the time frames available, namely, spoken language. The foremost priority of the curriculum is acquisition of a functional communicative competence in the spoken language that (1) guarantees that students are able to communicate usefully in Japanese with respect to specified domains and (2) can be utilized to foster development of written language skills

This must not be construed to mean that written language skills are to be in any sense neglected; extensive specifications for written language are provided in chapter 6. As Japan is one of the more literate societies on this planet, we recognize that students will need to access the rich resources that society offers through the medium of written language. Modern technology, via the Internet, offers new opportunities for communication through written language. Students will need to be provided with a solid foundation of basic reading and writing skills and strategies that will enable them to meet the long-term challenges posed by written language. To read with comprehension, students need to have access not only to the writing system itself, but also to be able to draw on integrated phonological, syntactic, semantic, and contextual processing skills and the automaticity that characterizes the ability to communicate in spoken language.

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[3] One possible exception relates to the growing cadre of students in advanced classes who have returned from Japan after developing substantial linguistic proficiency through exchange programs. These students are, however, beyond the purview of the present framework.

TEACH LANGUAGE *IN* CULTURE

Our fifth core principle is that Japanese should be taught in the context of Japanese culture. By culture, here we are referring not to the learned culture of literature arts and artifacts that for native speakers constitute part of formal education, but to an "acquired culture," which is gained as part of the process of socialization and maturation towards adulthood.[4]

Focus on communication in the curriculum means that we must pay close attention to whom students are communicating and why they are doing so. Speaking Japanese means making grammatical choices depending on to whom one is speaking and about whom one is speaking. A grammatical pattern that might be used in speaking to a classmate is very different from one that might be used to talk courteously to a visitor to the school. A teacher may use one style of speech to address a class and another to address a student individually or in private. Even at the high school level, the issue of appropriate styles of language is unavoidable within a communication-oriented curriculum. The direct style of speech that typifies the language of the students' same-age peers in Japan is often inappropriate in talking to unfamiliar adults. Direct style is also the style in which male and female speakers exhibit the most differences in their use of language. Such style choices are pervasive in the use of Japanese.

Japanese speakers also use pragmatic strategies — ways of formulating what they wish to communicate — that are significantly different from those that characterize American speech. It is not sufficient that students transfer American strategies of communication to Japanese. Their communication must be informed by knowledge of, and functional skills in, the cultural context in which the language is used. The student who is perfectly courteous in his own language, but cannot use appropriate communication strategies when speaking Japanese may come across as uncooperative, boorish, or rude, even where no offense was intended. In short, effective communication in Japanese entails far more than stringing words together grammatically. It demands the ability to negotiate, by means of language, a cultural space that is often quite different from an American cultural space. The learner's challenge is to understand and utilize the Japanese cultural space for his or her own communicative goals.

Teaching language in its cultural context does not mean trying to turn American students into Japanese. However, learning to formulate one's thoughts and interactions through the modes of expression of another language and culture is a vital and invaluable part of the language learning experience. We are not teaching students merely to express themselves using Japanese words, but to achieve their own communicative goals using the same linguistic structures, communicative strategies and cultural assumptions that Japanese use among themselves. It is important, moreover, that students be adequately informed of Japanese expectations concerning social and linguistic behavior, so that they can interact in a manner that does not cause unreasonable or avoidable discomfort. Students should be provided with information and training necessary to enable them to function in Japan and to make well-informed choices concerning how they will interact whether the conversation is conducted in Japanese or English. We may expect and hope that our students will interact with Japanese speakers at the personal level and develop long-term personally-enriching relationships, and it is our responsibility as teachers to ensure that they set out with an adequate knowledge of how to interact. In a multicultural world, the ability to adapt to a different culture is a valuable skill and should be recognized as such.

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[4] For discussion of the notion of culture and related issues, see Unger, et al. (1993) and Jorden (1992).

Specific curricular recommendations concerning the teaching of language in culture are presented in chapter 5. Great care must be taken to avoid stereotyping and to provide students with up-to-date information, since Japan is a complex and dynamic society, and one that is constantly and rapidly remaking itself. Teachers will need to be attuned to the extensive variation in social behavior within the culture, along regional and generational lines and in different interpersonal contexts.

THE STRATEGY

A curricular framework based on the above principles clearly must be substantively more than either a catalogue of discrete grammatical patterns to be covered or a set of broadly-defined benchmarks. It must fully reflect a concern for communicative use of spoken language and it must do so in ways that are explicit enough to allow for the design of detailed curricula and classroom syllabi. The content of the curriculum must be small enough that it can be mastered by students, yet rich enough that it brings students to a level of proficiency that, in some substantive, non-trivial sense is useful to themselves and to the native speakers with whom they interact. In the remainder of this volume, therefore, we have adapted a model deployed by van Ek (1976), to specify the linguistic content of the Japanese language curriculum in terms of inventories [5] of

- *Topic Areas* that are likely to be encountered by students when they use Japanese; and then, on the basis of these topic areas;
- *Communicative Functions* that may be needed in order to permit students to engage in conventional communication in those topic areas; and
- *Concepts* of general utility in communicating information about the world.

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[5] The terms Communicative Functions and Concepts correspond respectively to the terms Function and Notion used by van Ek. We have replaced his terms with terms that our experience indicates to be more descriptive and more familiar to teachers. It may be noted, moreover, that the terms Function and Notion have come to be associated with a specific methodological school, which is not our intent. Although the communicative objectives of instruction must clearly be taken to imply that some methodologies are to be preferred over others, it is not the goal of this framework to lay down any specific pedagogical approach.

The term *Topic Areas* is self-explanatory: it refers to the kind of subject matter that students might be expected to talk about. *Communicative Functions* relates to how Japanese speakers use their language to do such things as interact socially, get other people to do things, discuss facts and opinions, and manage their conversations. The third term, *Concepts,* relates to the ways in which language is used by speakers to verbally organize the world around them — to talk, for example about relationships in space and time, and about size, color and shape. Communicative Functions and Concepts can be viewed as building blocks of communication within the Topic Areas. Although the boundary between Communicative Functions and Concepts is not completely discrete, and items listed in one or other category might sometimes reasonably fit in either or both, these classifications do provide a useful heuristic for structuring information about how language is used. By defining the language content to be covered in the curriculum in terms of these three categories, we seek to highlight how the resources of the language can be brought together for communication and to give some measure of their potential importance in the curriculum. The content of these categories will be spelled out in greater detail in chapter 3.

The framework on which we have based this work is one that has been, directly and indirectly, of immense influence in the design of curricula for English and for other languages over the last two decades. Van Ek's focus on function affords us a yardstick for prioritizing what is to be taught, allowing us to assign higher priority to those functions that are of greatest utility to students, and to weigh in an informed manner the pedagogical trade-offs between form and structure in acquisition. While it is arguable that many functions do not always map easily to specific grammatical structures, such instances typically relate to patterns of language use that would be characterized as advanced, and therefore beyond the scope of an introductory curriculum. What the present framework provides is a useful conceptual categorization that permits a cross-sectional perspective of how different patterns of language are associated with their roles in communication, a dimension which is mostly absent from the current generation of Japanese language textbooks and curricula.

In particular, the model provides us with a framework for capturing the broad general applicability of language functions within a coherent curriculum. It is neither possible nor desirable to specify every situation that a student might conceivably encounter, nor all the patterns and language that might ever be used in any given situation. Our goal is not to teach students what to say in every situation, but to provide them practice with communicative skills in a sufficient variety of contexts such that they can transfer those skills appropriately to new situations. There is a great deal of overlap in the language patterns which may be used in different situations: as a communicative act, asking where the bathroom is at a station has much in common with asking where to find men's clothing in a department store. Viewed in this manner, the functional potential of even a small repertoire of grammatical patterns turns out to be huge. Recasting the grammar in a functional framework is thus especially useful for its power to suggest to teachers the many ways that a relatively small range of linguistic patterns, structures, and vocabulary may be combined by high school students so that they can engage in communication, albeit in relatively limited domains, that allows them to open the doors of Japanese society and its culture.

Neither the discussion in chapter 3 nor the content of the inventories in the appendices should be taken to constitute a pedagogical sequence. Specific, detailed curricula will in general need to proceed in conventional fashion, from the simple to the more complex, from the more common (i.e., functionally useful) to the less common, from the more concrete to the more abstract (Unger, et al., 1993). Since these broad principles of sequencing will at times be found to be in conflict,[6] curriculum design will need to weigh carefully the tradeoffs involved on an item-by-item basis. It is probable that curricula can be most successfully organized around the principle of introducing students to structural patterns in the context of their communicative functions and concepts within the specific topic areas. As new material is introduced, the curriculum will gradually expand, in cyclic fashion, the range of topic areas in which students can use those functions and concepts, and add new functions and concepts as the tasks require. The strategy will be to focus on developing specific competencies that can be transferred to new topic areas as learners progress, rather than a broader coverage accompanied by less skill.

Some attempt has been made in the inventories to provide information concerning the contexts in which various patterns, phrases, and so forth, are used, together with much additional social and pragmatic information. Japanese conversational strategies frequently diverge sharply from those of English, and information about these, though highly relevant to the development of communicative skills, is still not widely incorporated into language or grammar textbooks in a manner that is useful to teachers. Selection of vocabulary is left primarily to the discretion of the teacher; no attempt has been made to specify vocabulary items beyond those associated with specific communicative goals or concepts.

We have sought to constrain the inventories by the requirement that a motivated high school student should, within the space of a four-year language program, be reasonably able to acquire a communicative competence with respect to at least their content. We have also endeavored to keep the material as relevant as possible to high school students. While we acknowledge the role of high school in preparing learners for adult life, much can be safely postponed for later levels. Linguistic behavior relating to the exchange of business cards, for example, is probably inappropriate at high school, but would, on the other hand, be quite appropriate in a community college. If teachers focus in the classroom on communicative use of language appropriate to their student's age group, students are likely to discover that they can communicate effectively in Japanese even at quite an early stage in their learning, despite limited grammar and vocabulary. Such students are likely to remain motivated through the life-long task of developing adult communicative skills in Japanese.

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[6] "Echo questions" are a case in point. Structurally simple, consisting of NOUN + desu ka (e.g., in the exchange: A: *Ikimasu ka*. B: *Watashi desu ka. Ikimasu yo.*), these questions constitute a powerful device that allows even beginning students to track the referent of discourse. By the same token, these questions are also very abstract.

CHAPTER THREE

TOPICS, FUNCTIONS, AND CONCEPTS

TOPIC AREAS

What is taught and learned in the Japanese language classroom is to be defined primarily in terms of the communicative needs of the learners. These needs must be identified and prioritized. One cannot expect learners, after just three or four years of instruction, to engage in all the interactions typical of an educated adult native speaker of Japanese.

Learners who travel to Japan for brief visits or who interact with Japanese in the United States are likely to find certain topics to be highly recurrent, or in other instances, necessary in order to maintain themselves physically in Japan. Below are identified core topic areas that we believe to be of greatest utility to high school learners. Teachers should provide students with the lexical, grammatical and communicative resources, along with any relevant background and cultural information, to enable them to initiate and answer (and, where necessary, deflect) typical questions on these topics, and to engage in other topic-related interactions in a manner that is linguistically and culturally appropriate. Many of the topics itemized below, adapted from van Ek (1976), are already canonized in current textbooks, while others will require teachers to obtain or develop supplementary materials.

The principal topic areas that we have identified include

- personal information
- home and family
- education and career
- learning Japanese
- health and welfare
- shopping
- food and drink
- services

- leisure and recreation
- travel and transportation
- weather and climate
- geography

It is not intended that particular topic areas be exclusively associated with specific communicative skills or concepts. Learners should be able to employ the full repertoire of communicative functions and concepts for the purposes of communication in each topic area. For example, in the first topic area, *personal information*, students should not be limited simply to the exchange of declarative factual information, but should also be able to speculate about and give opinions on identities and characteristics (for example, *Tanaka-san ja nai desu ka* 'Isn't that Tanaka-san?' *Nijuu-hassai gurai da to omoimasu* 'I think she's about 28').

Although the organization of the topic areas should not be construed as representing an instructional sequence, some items contain clues concerning classroom activities. Teachers will find it useful to apply a cyclical approach in which learners practice language skills relating to, for example, elementary shopping activities in the first year, and go on to master further skills and concepts in more sophisticated interactions in second and third year classes. We next define broad outcomes for each topic area.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Learners should be able to communicate basic personal information about themselves and other individuals.

This information should be tailored to the student, and may include information about ethnic identity and religion, if the student desires. A student of Korean-American background, for example, may desire to be able to inform Japanese speakers of his or her ethnic identity. Other students need not be actively familiar with such vocabulary.

HOME AND FAMILY

Learners should be able to communicate basic information about their own and other families, and life at home. They should be able to employ basic family terms for reference to both members of their own families and those of others.

Students should be able to refer to the occupations of their own family members, but need not possess a wide range of vocabulary about other occupations.

EDUCATION AND CAREER

Learners should be able to discuss and compare their school experiences with Japanese speakers and should be able to express in a simple fashion their future career plans, if any.

Learners should be able to comprehend instructions given in Japanese for classroom management and to interact in Japanese with their teachers to achieve learning goals.

LEARNING JAPANESE

Learners should be able to talk about their experiences learning Japanese and other languages. They should be able to engage in elementary discourse in order to obtain information about the aspects of written language (e.g., ask questions about the meaning or translation of Japanese words and phrases, ask for repetitions).

LEISURE AND RECREATION

Learners should be able to communicate with Japanese about leisure and recreation activities — which ones they like and dislike — and to give and receive invitations to take part in these activities.

TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION

Learners should be able to communicate about travel and transportation in order to get around in Japan and to facilitate the travel of Japanese speakers in the United States.

To this end, students should have a basic vocabulary of key place names in the United States and Japan (see also chapter 3).

HEALTH AND WELFARE

Learners should have basic communication skills necessary to ensure their health, safety and welfare in Japan. Some learners may need to be able to communicate specific health-related information (e.g., the existence of chronic or potentially life-threatening conditions such as diabetes, or allergies).

It is not necessary that students should be able to discuss their medical problems with a doctor in Japanese. However, they should be able to get others to obtain medical assistance for them when necessary.

SHOPPING

Learners should be able to discuss shopping and purchases and carry out simple exchanges in shopping situations. They should be able to ask for and compare items with respect to price, quality, and other attributes.

FOOD AND DRINK

Students should be able to discuss food and drink, obtain food and drink, and interact with Japanese speakers in situations involving food and drink. They should be able to order food in a restaurant and to issue and receive invitations to eat and drink.

SERVICES

Learners should be able to make basic use of services such as the post office, telephone, and police.

It is not necessary that students be able to hold a sustained phone conversation, which is a sophisticated skill, but they should be able to get another person to come to the phone.

WEATHER AND CLIMATE

Learners should be able to discuss the weather and climate in Japan and their home region.

GEOGRAPHY

Learners should be able to communicate simple information concerning local, regional, and national geography. They should be familiar with the basic features of the geography of Japan and be able to locate major islands and cities.

This topic area largely involves vocabulary items, which will need to be tailored to the location of the school, and the nature of any exchange programs with Japan.

COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS

When speakers communicate in a language, they may seek to do things or to have others do things. They may seek to impart information or to impart their attitudes about information. They may seek to obtain information or information about the attitudes of others. They may use language as a social tool in order to interact with others and to maintain or modulate certain kinds of social relations. They may use language to manage the way in which a conversation develops. They may do some or all of these things in the same utterance.

We will use the term "Communicative Functions" to refer to the kinds of things people do with language [7]. Within the topic areas specified above, students should have a command of the following interactive communicative functions, utilizing the range of patterns and vocabulary given in the inventories in the appendices:

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[7] The communicative functions identified here correspond closely with the Functions of van Ek (1976). Discourse management skills have been added (see Omaggio, 1986 for additional examples), along with modulating interpersonal relations, which we have introduced specifically for Japanese. The order of the categories presented here differs from that of van Ek: socializing and getting things done are placed earlier than communicating factual information. In doing so, we seek to recognize that the communicative goals of high school students are likely to be social and transactional, rather than informational. This ordering, is a matter of emphasis, and should not be taken to represent an instructional sequence.

- socializing
- getting things done
- communicating factual information
- communicating opinions and intellectual attitudes
- communicating emotional attitudes
- modulating interpersonal relations
- managing discourse

For each of these communicative functions, the inventories in the appendices list specific goals of communication, grammatical patterns and phrases that we believe to be most useful and that might reasonably be acquired in the course of a high school level program of instruction.

SOCIALIZING

Learners should be able to employ a basic repertoire of formulaic expressions for social interactions appropriate to the student's relation with the addressee. They should be able to use these expressions fluently, with good timing, and in a manner that does not trigger social discomfort on the part of a sympathetic native speaker.

GETTING THINGS DONE

Students should be able to achieve a broad variety of transactional goals, including making requests, issuing and receiving invitations, suggesting courses of action, making and expressing decisions, giving instructions, issuing and withholding permissions, and offering and accepting assistance. They should be able to do so in a manner that is socially acceptable.

COMMUNICATING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Learners should be able to ask and answer simple questions of fact and provide socially-appropriate corrections to erroneous information and assumptions.

Students will need to know that in many contexts, direct assertions of fact are socially inappropriate. Students should be able to avoid confrontational discourse through the use of indirection and other appropriate strategies — for example, those below.

COMMUNICATING OPINIONS AND INTELLECTUAL ATTITUDES

Learners should be able to communicate intellectual attitudes and opinions about the information that they transact, including degrees of certainty and uncertainty about the information. They should be able to indicate what is their own opinion and what is the opinion of others.

COMMUNICATING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES

Learners should be able to communicate basic wishes and desires, likes and dislikes, and emotional attitudes to the information transacted in the discourse in a manner that is culturally and socially appropriate.

They will need to know that strong expression of dislikes may be culturally inappropriate in adult communication, and to recognize the use of indirection when Japanese speakers express emotional attitudes.

MODULATING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Learners should be able to modulate interpersonal distance in relation to their addressees in the use of distal[8] (*desu/-masu*) and direct (*da/-ta*) style language. They should use appropriate forms to the appropriate persons: distal style when talking to teachers[9] and non-familiar adults, and direct style when talking to same-age peers. They should be aware of the social impact of not employing these forms correctly.

Since direct style speech is typical of students' peers, it is recommended that direct style be introduced earlier rather than later, especially in programs that offer extensive opportunities for exchanges with Japanese teenagers. By the same token, it should also be remembered that many of the people with whom American teenagers may need to interact are adults, and that students visiting Japan may find themselves plunged into relatively formal situations perhaps not typical of the experience of their Japanese peers (e.g., meeting the mayor or the head of a local business organization when on an exchange program). Teachers should seek to ensure that students do not mix styles or use direct style inappropriately: for example, to visiting adults. Classroom discourse with the teacher should be conducted by the students in distal style.

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[8] Distal refers to the distancing function of the forms. The terms distal and direct are adopted from Jorden (1986) and are employed here because they more closely characterize the social impact of the forms.

[9] Note that single-word answers in Japanese are specifically direct style, and therefore inappropriate in addressing a teacher in a classroom situation.

T: Sore, nan desu ka?
'What's that?' [direct stlye]
S: Tegami. /Tegami desu.
'A letter.' [direct style] / 'It's a letter.' [distal style]

The student's one-word strategy of communication, associated with novice speakers, is inappropriate for the addressee chosen. This is something that is not the case when one-word answers are used by novice speakers of European languages.

In principle, learners should be able to say anything in direct style that they can say in distal style, where the use of the former is most socially appropriate.

Use of honorific and humble polite language is not typical of students' peers in Japan, and with the exception of stock phrases, or phrases for recognition only, will not be taught in the first three years of high school programs. High school students should be advised, however, of the existence of honorific and humble polite language and its importance in adult Japanese society.

MANAGING DISCOURSE

Learners should have discourse management skills that enable them to initiate and sustain communication in a natural fashion, keep track of what they are talking about, and otherwise maintain a cohesive, coherent discourse. They should be able to use sentence connectives and other discourse devices to achieve these ends.

Student discourse should not be limited to single, one-time question-and-answer exchanges. They should be able to conduct multi-step conversations, involving questions, responses, and follow up in the form of observations or subsequent questions. Students should be able to initiate discourse.

Students should be able to give and receive multi-step instructions interactively with another speaker, for example, in the case of directions.

CONCEPTS

Concepts relate to the content of what is communicated, such as when something takes place, how much something costs, why something is done. Students should be able to communicate a variety of concepts to express the world around them, including concepts of space, time, quantity, physical properties, and logical relations. At the end of three years of instruction, Japanese language students should be able to communicate the following concepts, where relevant to the Topic Areas listed in the first section of chapter 3, deploying the full range of communicative functions outlined in these guidelines. As in the communicative functions inventory, items included in the concept inventory are heterogeneous, ranging over a wide variety of lexical items and grammatical patterns.

- existential concepts
- spatial concepts
- temporal concepts
- quantitative concepts
- physical concepts
- evaluative concepts

- referential concepts
- event-related concepts
- logical relations

EXISTENTIAL CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to communicate basic concepts relating to the presence and absence of objects and people. They should be able to discuss ability and the lack ability (presence or absence of possibility).

SPATIAL CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to communicate basic concepts relating to space, relative location, direction, and movement.

Students should be able to ask after and identify the location of objects relative to other objects, give street directions, and communicate where they or others are going.

TEMPORAL CONCEPTS

Students should be able to communicate a range of basic temporal concepts, including the time of day, days of the week, calendar months, and years in the Western calendar.

Students should be able to refer to both points of time and intervals of time: They should be able to communicate when an event or activity takes place, and how long it lasts.

It is not necessary that high school students be able to convert freely between the Western and Japanese calendars. But they should be familiar with the basic principles of the Japanese reign-period calendar, names of recent reign periods, and be able to give their birthday in terms of the Japanese calendar.

QUANTITATIVE CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to communicate concepts of number up to eight digits and other concepts relating to quantity.

Students will need to be able to use both Chinese series numerals and Japanese series numerals and should be able to employ them in conjunction with a variety of numeral classifiers associated with common objects.

PHYSICAL CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to communicate the physical properties of objects and entities, including size, weight, and age.

EVALUATIVE CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to compare the properties of items and communicate concepts relating to the evaluation of worth, acceptability, importance, and so forth.

REFERENTIAL CONCEPTS

Learners should be able to refer to people and objects established in the discourse and in the discourse-external context, and to other, indefinite entities. In particular, students should use strategies designed to avoid pronominal forms (especially the use of *anata*) in situations where these are inappropriate.

Students should be able to understand, and use wherever appropriate, zero pronoun strategies in reference to people and things that are contextually salient.

EVENT-RELATED CONCEPTS

Students should be able to communicate the roles of participants or entities involved in an event, notably agent, experiencer, patient, benefactor, and benefactee by the use of appropriate grammatical particles.

LOGICAL RELATIONS

Students should be able to communicate complex ideas employing basic logical relations. For example, students should be able to conjoin concepts (conjunction), refer to alternative possibilities (disjunction), and express such notions as conditionality and causality.

INTEGRATING SKILLS

In developing curricula and classroom instruction based on the standards contained in this chapter, teachers will need to ensure that they integrate the various communicative functions, concepts, and topic areas. In practice this will not be difficult. A lesson structured around issuing and receiving invitations (a communicative skill), for example, will automatically involve other communicative functions, concepts, and, plausibly, a variety of topic areas. A lesson built around a particular grammatical construction should not teach that structure in isolation, but should include a variety of ways in which that construction is utilized for communication, and be integrated with students' prior knowledge. The desiderative *V-tai* pattern, for example, may be used not just to express the simple desire to perform some action, but, in conjunction with the *n desu* construction, can be used as a means of declining an invitation, e.g., *ikitai n desu kedo*... ('it is the case that...,' 'I want to go but...'), or as a preface to an information question, giving background information as to why the speaker is asking the question, as in *Pootorando ni ikitai n desu kedo, Amutorakku no eki wa doko desyoo ka* ('I want to go to Portland...where is the Amtrak station?'). A seemingly straightforward request for information on how to get from on place to another turns out to require that students be able to handle a great many concepts and functions simultaneously. The task will be to teach students that they can take small "building blocks" of communication and integrate them into a basic competence in the language.

Students will need to be trained in the specific skills that they need in order to communicate effectively and accurately in speech and should not expect these skills to arise from the performance of non-communicative tasks. Having students read aloud from a text trains students to do just that: read aloud from a text. Communicative interactions are hugely complex tasks, demanding that students integrate receptive and productive skills with situational meaning. To do this, students will need to be provided with ample opportunity to use Japanese in communicative contexts in and out of the classroom.

CHAPTER FOUR

A FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSMENT

The topic areas, communicative functions and concepts identified in the preceding chapter and detailed in the appendices are content standards. To be meaningful, however, the content standards specified in the curriculum must also be accompanied by yardsticks that measure how well students can speak Japanese, that is, how well they can use Japanese to achieve their communicative goals. Such yardsticks should represent levels of proficiency that are sufficiently high that they are demanding, and yet are potentially achievable by the majority of students.

Assessment within this framework means that teachers will need to measure student performance in ways that are consistent with the objectives of a communication-oriented curriculum. Testing should validate what is taught. To this end it is important that assessment be driven by the curriculum rather than the reverse and to ensure that the curriculum is not distorted by requirements that it conform to preexisting external assessment instruments which may be at odds with, or irrelevant to, its objectives. By the same token, such preexisting instruments should not be used to assess student progress or evaluate teacher performance under curricula developed within the present framework. Since assessment methods that do not reflect curricular objectives will subvert the goals of the curriculum, it will be necessary to ensure not only that meaningful standards of proficiency are specified in the curriculum, but also that model assessment instruments and strategies are developed that are specifically tailored to those standards. Curriculum development efforts should also be accompanied by professional education programs that include a substantive component of training in techniques for implementing interviews and other valid strategies of testing communicative proficiency in Japanese.

The discussion in this chapter relates primarily to spoken language. Analogous standards for written language are developed in chapter 6 of this volume.

THRESHOLD-LEVEL PROFICIENCY

Upon completion of their high school programs, students should have a basic functional competence in Japanese. They should be able to use what they have learned well enough to succeed in communicating in Japanese, reasonably fluently and reasonably accurately, so as to achieve their communicative goals without causing misunderstanding or excessive discomfort or impatience on the part of an empathetic Japanese speaker, and so that they can understand and respond appropriately to the communicative goals of Japanese speakers.

This functional competence should not be interpreted as a proficiency in all domains of communication that might be handled by students' same-age native-speaking peers, but as a more limited competence with respect to specific domains that are defined in the curriculum. It is unrealistic to expect that high school students will be able to handle all topics or interactions that might potentially arise in the real world, and it is equally unrealistic to expect to be able to assess their progress in such terms.[10] For the purposes of curricula developed within this framework, proficiency should be measured within the parameters of topic areas, communicative functions, and concepts, defined in the linguistic specifications of chapter 3 and in the appendices. It is expected that learners will achieve substantive functional proficiency with respect to these parameters under the following circumstances, so that they are able to make themselves understood, and understand others in

- face-to-face conversation;
- typical conversations, representing normal interactions with native speakers;
- conversations relating to specified topic areas; and
- conversations involving specified communicative functions and concepts.

FLUENCY AND DELIVERY

Students should speak Japanese reasonably fluently within the range of topics, communicative skills, and concepts defined in the preceding chapter. By "reasonably fluently," it is meant that student speech should be characterized by an acceptable degree of automaticity and smoothness of delivery when engaging in a typical conversation with a Japanese speaker.

It is not sought to have the student acquire a native-like competence in spoken Japanese. Students should not be expected to maintain a discourse with the same speed or evenness as a native speaker, but by the same token they should not cause undue discomfort to themselves or an empathetic hearer, or trigger breakdowns in communication through excessive hesitancy or groping for basic vocabulary, grammatical forms, or communicative strategies.

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[10] For this reason, the present framework is not linked to the proficiency scale of the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Although it is likely that students who achieve the proficiencies specified in this volume might be evaluated at the low to mid intermediate range, the ACTFL proficiency levels would not reflect the achievements of successful learners, who might perform at a much higher level in some domains than those that would be suggested by an overall rating.

Students should be able to communicate with sufficient automaticity that they can focus on the informational content of what they are saying, without detriment to the accuracy of communication, as opposed to focusing on the forms (words, grammatical patterns) of the language that they are attempting to use. This entails that students must have ample opportunity to practice spoken language in class. Automaticity in the spoken language will also assist students in other processing-intensive tasks such as reading.

Fluency and delivery will be enhanced if students have basic discourse management skills, including topic tracking and appropriate hesitation and self-correction strategies, that will permit them to engage interactively in multi-step cooperative discourse. Students should be able to extend their use of communicative functions and concepts to new situations and contexts beyond the immediate ones for which they have been taught.

ACCURACY

Students should be reasonably accurate in their use of Japanese. A communication-oriented curriculum implies the acquisition of a body of communicative skills that are linguistically and culturally appropriate. This ensures that learners do not throw an undue burden of comprehension on those with whom they interact and enhances the likelihood that they will, in fact, meet their own communicative goals. As we have already noted in chapter 2, learning to formulate one's thoughts and interactions through the modes of expression of a different language and culture — and in the process, reinventing and rediscovering oneself and ones' own values — is a core part of the language learning experience. By measuring accuracy across a number of parameters, it will be possible to measure the extent to which students are successfully able to convey their meaning.[11]

Pronunciation

Students should speak Japanese with reasonably accurate pronunciation of segmental sounds, pitch accent, and intonation. Pronunciation should be accurate with respect to the length of vowels and consonants, and should not otherwise exhibit major interference from features of the student's native language (English, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.).

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[11] It is not our purpose to advocate what might be termed a "laissez-faire," anything goes, brand of communicativism. The development of accuracy is important given the communicative thrust of these guidelines, since the use of ill-formed grammatical patterns and anomalous pragmatic strategies can lead to fossilization of those patterns and strategies, similar to the pidgin-like strategies resulting from informal language acquisition by adults.

Pronunciation should not detract the hearer's attention from the message that the learner seeks to communicate. It should be easily comprehensible to a Japanese who is not accustomed to hearing foreigners speaking Japanese, but who is empathetic and willing to cooperate in the student's efforts to communicate.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics relates to the ways in which people communicate meaning that are not directly derivable from the forms used. These are often not directly obvious to non-native speakers from surface words or patterns of the language. For example, students should not transfer inappropriate pragmatic strategies employed in English to Japanese contexts, for example, inappropriate use of forms such as *ikitai desu ka* (do you want to go...) in invitations. They should be able to use suitable strategies of indirection to express opinions, for example, use of negative questions: *Tanaka-san no ja nai desu ka* ('I think it might be Mr. Tanaka's'). Students should be able to deploy the inventoried communicative skills to accurately represent their own pragmatic goals.

Students will be considered pragmatically accurate if they are able to communicate their goals in ways that do not cause misunderstanding on the part of Japanese speakers or result in Japanese speakers feeling discomfort owing to the inappropriateness of the communicative strategy used.

Sociolinguistics

Students will be considered sociolinguistically accurate if they are able to communicate their goals in ways that do not result in Japanese speakers feeling discomfort owing to social inappropriateness of the linguistic expression.

Students should use appropriate styles of speech with appropriate addressees. In particular, they should not use direct style speech to an adult in a formal setting unless they stand in a relationship with that person that permits use of direct-style speech (e.g., a family member).

Grammatical patterns and vocabulary

Students should have a reasonably accurate command of verbal and adjectival morphology, particle selection, word order, and other grammatical patterns of Japanese identified in the appendices, such that they can employ these effectively in communication. Students should be able to utilize these patterns and vocabulary in new contexts comparable to those they have practiced in class.

Students will be considered reasonably accurate with respect to grammar and vocabulary if they have few errors, and such errors as they make do not detract significantly from comprehension. A student who is reasonably accurate will frequently self-correct without further prompting.

Discourse management

Students should be able to accurately track topics of discourse. They should be able to ask questions in order for clarification.

Listening comprehension

Students should comprehend spoken Japanese on typical subjects within the range of topic areas, communicative skills, and concepts specified in these guidelines when addressed in face-to-face conversations, and when the conversation is conducted

- at a normal speed (i.e., a pace that is neither fast for a native speaker, nor unnaturally slowed for the benefit of the student); and
- under good auditory conditions, i.e., where background noise or distortion is minimal, and where the Japanese speaker does not exhibit excessive dialect or other idiosyncratic features.

Although students' listening comprehension skills may exceed their productive spoken communication skills, it is not expected that students will exhibit significant understanding of conversations among native speakers in which they are not direct participants. Radio and TV news and other broadcasts will generally be significantly beyond high school student comprehension.

Students should be able to comprehend meaning in context (*takai* corresponds to both 'is high' and 'is expensive' in English), and should be provided with sufficient context to be able to do so. They should be able to comprehend the referents of sentences in which elements have been omitted under zero pronoun strategies. They should also be able to engage in topic tracking strategies that enable them to repair comprehension lapses, and should be able to repair comprehension failures by seeking correction or additional information. Students should be able to ask Japanese speakers for repetition, clarification, and the meanings of words or equivalents in English. Student speech should not be marked by constant interruptions seeking clarification or "off-the-wall" responses indicating communication breakdown. Other participants in the conversation should not become frustrated at what they perceive as frequent evidence of misunderstanding by the learner.

In general, students who are reasonably accurate with respect to the above parameters are likely to be able to correct their own errors without prompting, and will seek to repair interactions upon receiving feedback from the people with whom they are talking.

STANDARDS AS TARGETED PROFICIENCIES

The proficiency expectations previously outlined are not trivial. They are not minimal passing standards, and it is not expected that they will necessarily be attained by all students. Rather, they represent targeted levels of performance to be achieved by the majority of students in a program. It is recognized that student performance will be affected by motivation, aptitudes, and a variety of extraneous factors, and will vary across a continuum. The performance of a class and the effectiveness of instruction are to be measured by the extent to which students are able to attain the targeted proficiencies.

PRINCIPLES OF ASSESSMENT

To be valid, assessment should use techniques that are reasonable and realistic, and achieve results that are replicable in similar contexts. Accordingly, any assessment tools that accompany the curriculum should evaluate proficiencies (how well the student can communicate) with respect to a domain of achievement (what the student can communicate). If instruction itself is geared to development of communicative proficiency, valid assessment techniques will typically bear a close resemblance to normal classroom activities (and vice versa). As in all assessment, we should test what we teach.

REASONABLE

Assessment procedures and techniques should be reasonable. Assessment will be reasonable if it assesses students proficiencies within the objectives of the curriculum. Specifically, it should measure proficiency with respect to what students have achieved, that is, with respect to the topic areas, communicative functions, and concepts defined in this volume (or a subset thereof appropriate to the students' levels).

Assessment should not attempt to measure proficiencies beyond those targeted. It should not, for example, demand that students perform tasks that they would not be able to do well in their native language. Even the best students cannot be expected to maintain proficiency in subject areas with which they do not have familiarity.[12]

Assessment should relate to linguistic skills that students have had adequate opportunity to practice. A methodological corollary is that students should be given adequate opportunity to practice the skills that will be the subject of future evaluation. Students of Japanese will likely require more opportunity to practice skills in order to achieve targeted proficiency levels than their counterparts studying cognate European languages whose vocabulary and structures are reminiscent of those of English.

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[12] One of the authors has had the experience of interviewing a student who did extremely poorly on everything except an exercise that involved interpreting the layout of a map. It turned out that this individual had served in the United States Air Force, where he had trained to read aerial photographs — hence his excellent spatial skills. These skills had nothing, however, to do with his linguistic ability.

Since spoken language skills are central to the communication-oriented curriculum, it follows that assessment tools and techniques should primarily evaluate spoken language skills. Written language testing does not provide adequate assessment of spoken language skills (and vice versa). Likewise, multiple choice testing will not evaluate students' productive skills in the spoken language. Teachers will therefore need to familiarize themselves with, and become skilled practitioners of, well-founded techniques of assessing spoken language skills. Two principal strategies for assessing spoken language are

- interviews conducted by the class teacher, other teachers, or classroom assistants; and
- observation of students' conversational interactions with the teacher or assistants, and with other students.

In the event that outside personnel are brought in to conduct assessment, these individuals should be properly trained in assessment techniques, and should be familiar with the curriculum and its requirements.

REALISTIC

Assessment procedures and conditions should be as realistic as reasonably possible. Realistic assessment will seek to be contextualized, authentic, and culturally appropriate. Techniques of assessment should engage the learner in language and language tasks that will elicit appropriate usage by providing contexts that approximate those that might be encountered in the real world. One characteristic of realism is that linguistic interactions in assessment should be integrative rather than piecemeal. If interviews are conducted, for example, these should be designed as coherent, natural discourses between active participants. An interview with a student is realistic if it flows as a natural conversational interaction, even though it may contain elements of simulation or role playing. Isolated, unrelated questions posed by an interviewer, on the other hand, do not constitute a valid test of student communicative proficiency. As always, assessment should be conducted using language that is authentic, contextualized, and culturally appropriate.

REPLICABLE

Assessment should measure replicable proficiencies: An assessment task should achieve the same results with the same student or group of students when conducted under slightly varying conditions. For example, students should be able to engage in a simulated shopping exercise, even when variables (price, size, color) differ slightly from those practiced in class. Assessment should be able to establish, for example, that a student is able to ask people to perform various actions that differ from context to context.

CHAPTER FIVE

AUTHENTICITY, CONTEXT, AND CULTURE

This chapter addresses three interrelated issues that are of crucial importance if students learn to communicate usefully in Japanese and acquire an enriching understanding of Japan, its society, and how its people can interact. A language is more than a mere collection of its parts (its grammatical patterns and vocabulary): it is used by its speakers for functional and social purposes and is spoken and understood in the context of the situation in which it is used. Learning to speak Japanese not only requires an understanding of how Japanese society constructs itself through language and how speakers of Japanese employ their language, but, beyond that, developing the ability to utilize this understanding to achieve one's own communicative goals. This is a skill that reaches to the core of understanding another language and culture; its acquisition must constitute a central goal of any communication-oriented curriculum. To ensure that the curriculum is properly designed to prepare students for, and enable them to engage in, interactions with Japanese speakers that are meaningful, culturally appropriate, and effective, the curriculum should focus not on abstract language learning, but on ensuring that language learning is properly situated in realistic physical and social contexts. Curricula, materials and instructional techniques should be designed so that students can experience and learn to use

- language that is authentic in that it closely approximates the typical speech patterns of native speaking Japanese;
- language that is contextualized in terms of the physical situation, discourse, and social context; and
- language that is situated in culture and in particular, the culture of communication in Japan.

This chapter addresses these three dimensions of language instruction, which are of especial concern when the communication-oriented curriculum is translated into classroom practice.

AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE

A high degree of realism is the key to ensuring that students can understand and interact with native speakers in real life. Students need to learn to use and understand varieties of Japanese that reflect natural patterns of grammar and discourse. They need to be able to understand and engage in natural, idiomatic Japanese discourse uttered at natural speeds, with, for example, ellipsis (omission) of information that is retrievable from the context, and using standard communication strategies to recover and confirm information. If not exposed to Japanese that reflects everyday patterns of speech and interaction, they will likely encounter difficulty later in comprehending and communicating in Japanese in real-life situations outside the classroom.

Teachers and curriculum designers will need to ask themselves whether textbooks, instructional materials, classroom tasks, activities and interactions, and evaluation and assessment tools reflect authentic language. In other words, does the language used reasonably represent

- *what Japanese native speakers would actually say in the context?* Does the language (of the textbook, materials, classroom activities, etc.) approximate that of native speakers, or does it represent an artificial discourse of a kind that would only be found in textbooks? Would the usage be more typical of written language or formal prepared speech, as opposed to spontaneous spoken language (e.g., formal *de wa arimasen* versus colloquial *ja nai desu*)?
- *normal use of everyday spoken language vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and idioms?* Is the language idiomatic and characteristic of the way in which Japanese speakers would formulate their ideas, or does it reflect translated English patterns of expression and interaction. Is the pattern only used in limited contexts (for example, *ikaga desu ka,* which might be used by a doctor to a patient, but is not typically appropriate as a functional equivalent of English 'How are you?')?
- *appropriate patterns for the communication of information?* Does the language used represent appropriate handling of given/old and new/focused information in the discourse? Is the choice of particles appropriate to the kind of information to be conveyed? Are particles added or omitted where information status of the word so demands? Is information that is retrievable from the context (either the previous discourse or the physical context) omitted when this is appropriate? Does the language used reflect appropriate use of affective particles like *ne* and *yo* and other characteristic devices indicating the speaker's attitude to the information conveyed.

- *the flow and structure of Japanese discourse?* For example, do the interactions reflect normal strategies for stalling, hesitation, information management and other components of collaborative discourse?
- *acceptable Japanese strategies for interpersonal interaction?* Is the language appropriate for the speakers, given their social relationship, roles (teacher/student, guest/host, etc.), ages, or where appropriate, gender?
- *typical speed and intonation patterns of Japanese speech interactions?* Do audio materials and classroom interactions provide good models of speech spoken at typical speeds? Or are they slowed down to the point of being unnatural, so that normal accent and intonation patterns are destroyed?

What is meant by "authentic language"? For the purposes of the curriculum, complete authenticity may not be desirable, since it will likely prove more noisy and confusing to students than it will be helpful. The requirement of authenticity must be weighed against the pedagogical need to prioritize or highlight other aspects of language use, and some degree of normalization will inevitably be necessary. Students should not, for example, be expected to use or recognize all fast-speech variants. It is probably more important, for example, that beginning high school students learn to use direct-style *wakaranai* 'I don't know' in appropriate contexts, and be able to distinguish these contexts from those in which they would use distal-style *wakarimasen*, than that they learn the casual fast-speech form *wakannai*, even though this form might be more typical of their peers in Japan. On the other hand, there are many forms that reasonably represent typical Japanese speech patterns and are completely appropriate for instruction at an early stage, even though they rarely appear in current textbooks. This means that, for example, the fast-speech *-teru* form should be taught alongside *-te iru*, since this variant is widely used in ordinary conversation by most speakers of standard Japanese. To do otherwise, is analogous to, say, teaching EFL students the English form *do not* to the exclusion of *don't*, and equally unlikely to prepare the student for real-world communication. Linguistic inputs and outputs will be considered authentic if they realistically capture ordinary speech behavior by Japanese speakers.

Concern for authenticity should relate not only to linguistic form, but also to the manner in which language is used to package information. Take for example, the following exchange:

T: *Miraa-kun, shukudai o dashimashita ka.*
'Miller, did you hand in your homework?'

S: *Hai, boku wa shukudai o dashimashita.*
'Yes, I (at any rate) handed in my homework.'

The above exchange does not reflect normal patterns of communication. It is unnaturally redundant in that the student repeats information that is already established by the teacher. Moreover, the student (we may safely assume unwittingly) implies that he has nothing to say about whether or not other students have submitted their homework, and that presumably they have not.[13] An exchange like the following, meanwhile, is a linguistically natural interaction appropriate to the same classroom management task. The student asks a question to check that it is indeed he who is being addressed and uses appropriate ellipsis of both subject and object of the sentence in the response, since both of these are known.

> T: *Miraa-kun, shukudai o dashimashita ka.*
> 'Miller, did you hand in your homework?'
>
> S: *Boku desu ka. Hai, dashimashita.*
> 'Me? Yes, I handed it in.'

Discourse patterns such as the echo question shown above are simple and easily accessible to even first-year students, and prepare students early on for realistic interactions outside the classroom. More importantly, they provide them with crucial linguistic tools to manage those interactions. For this reason, the linguistic patterns and pragmatic strategies used in the classroom should reflect what is appropriate to the communicative requirements of the situation. In particular, students should not be required, or encouraged, to transfer English language strategies of communication to Japanese settings, but should be provided with the inputs that will allow them to develop appropriate Japanese strategies to attain their communicative goals.

Particular care will need to be taken to ensure that textbook and materials chosen adequately reflect the requirements of authenticity in the communication-oriented curriculum, since for many students these will typically constitute a primary source of input and information about the Japanese language. Lamentably few textbooks of Japanese currently on the market meet the above criteria; many still present an excessively idealized language based on conventions of the written Japanese language, and are hence inappropriate to teaching spoken language in the American classroom where Japanese is taught as a foreign language. Teachers should refer to the criteria listed above in making their textbook selections.

TEACH LANGUAGE IN CONTEXT

A corollary of authenticity is context, since authentic language is only possible (meaningful) in the context in which it is used. Because decisions on such matters as what grammatical particles to use or whether to leave out familiar information will depend on the context, teaching authentic Japanese means teaching language situated in context. If students are to speak reasonably natural Japanese with reasonable fluency, they will need to make such decisions with some considerable degree of automaticity — a skill that will only be achieved with a great deal of practice. By the same token, exposure to properly contextualized language in the classroom will help raise the odds that students are able to understand normal situated use of spoken Japanese when they encounter them outside the classroom. For these reasons, classroom activities and tasks should simulate realistic situations and tasks, and provide adequate contexts to support understanding and production.

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[13] That the student should want to make this implicature is, of course, a possible scenario. The point, however, is that students need understand the implication of what they are saying, and package their information according to what they wish to communicate in Japanese.

Teachers should endeavor to ensure that the language used in textbooks, instructional materials, classroom tasks, activities and interactions, and evaluation and assessment tools is properly contextualized. The following are some questions teachers should ask when they attempt to evaluate materials for context.

- *Does the context facilitate comprehension?* In other words, would the context help students understand the language used or goals of an activity. For example, during a classroom task or exercise, are there props or other visual devices that help the student identify unfamiliar vocabulary without resorting to their native language? If in a textbook, does the interaction (the type of interaction, the players, and the situational context) presented give students a good idea of why particular linguistic forms are chosen over others?
- *Does the context facilitate the acquisition of normal patterns of linguistic interaction or discourse?* (Conversely, is the discourse presented or elicited appropriate to the physical or transactional context?) Well-designed contexts will effectively elicit such discourse characteristics as ellipsis of established information (by obviating the need to spell everything out) and particle selection (focusing on what or who). More concrete contexts will typically be more effective for this purpose than abstract ones.
- *Is the context socially appropriate?* Does it reasonably represent norms of interactions among Japanese native speakers? Does it reasonably reflect the kind of interactions that students might be expected to engage in the near future? (Conversely, is the language presented or elicited appropriate to the social context?)
- *Does the context help students see the utility of what they are learning?* An exercise in color naming is more likely to result in successful learning if the context enables students to see why they might want to name colors — to distinguish one item (a purchase perhaps) from another.
- *Does the context allow opportunities for development, expansion, extension, review, and recycling?* Does the syllabus or lesson plan exploit those possibilities?

In general, activities in the classroom should reflect the kinds of situations that students might reasonably be expected to encounter in Japan, or in interacting with Japanese speakers in the United States. Realistic classroom activities are likely to involve simple transactional activities (buying items, obtaining and giving directions) and interpersonal activities (hanging out with friends, interacting socially). Lengthy memorized monologues are unlikely to be realistic.[14] Use of simple props (photographs and drawings of common objects) and realia will enhance the realism when simulating contexts in the classroom.

Teachers' discourse with students should realistically reflect the kind of exchange in which students might engage. Asking students questions about the identity of items for which the answer is patently obvious to everyone present is not a realistic task: students will readily see that it is being performed as a classroom exercise, and not out of any real or simulated quest for information. Teachers will need to ensure that preparatory activities, especially those having to do with acquisition of the necessary forms, do not dilute activities that propel students towards active use of the language and are if at all possible, themselves contextualized so that they simulate communicative interactions as much as possible. Mechanical drills, for example, do not fall into the category of realistic activities, but may be useful to check on students mastery of certain forms or patterns. Wherever possible, such drills should be situated in contexts, so that they are encapsulated in natural sounding discourse. An exercise in color identification is more realistic, and meaningful, and more likely to result in learning if it is constructed in terms of the need to distinguish one item over another (perhaps in order to make a purchase).

One important function of contextualization is to enhance learning by ensuring that new linguistic forms are properly grounded in some sort of familiar or accessible reality. Use of local subject matter is strongly recommended, since it allows teachers to build contexts readily. Learners can frequently relate better to language material with local content than to material with content focused on the target community. Such a strategy enables students to focus on language and the content of communication rather than acquisition of piecemeal information, the relevance of which is not immediately obvious. Students will normally be more familiar with the geography of their own town than of locations in Japan. That Shinjuku is 10 minutes by train from Shibuya must be learned as a discrete fact, independently of the target language. On the other hand, the fact that there is a drugstore store and a supermarket just five minutes' walk from the students' school is something that students are already likely to know, and can be used as a basis for focusing on language use, rather than geographical facts.[15]

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[14] Self introductions (*jiko-shookai*) should be simple and brief. None of this, however, precludes requiring students to give extended utterances. A student might realistically need to give an extended explanation of how to get from point A to point B in her town in order to assist a Japanese visitor. However, a detailed monologue describing what the student does between getting up in the morning and going to school, for example, does not represent the kind of discourse that a student would normally engage in with Japanese speakers.

[15] Teachers will find it useful to use local content, for example, in instructions relating to directions or learning how to express notions of time and distance. There is a genuine likelihood that American students may accompany visitors on shopping and sight-seeing trips and on visits to local events and activities, and teachers will need to prepare students for such eventualities. By doing so, we make it more likely that such opportunities will present themselves.

Use of local content can take many different forms. For example, in teaching the months of the year, teachers are likely to find it initially more effective and conducive to retention if they employ materials reflecting local activities during those months (e.g., Thanksgiving is in November) than to teach unfamiliar events and activities associated with those months in Japan, which can be taught at some later point.

It should also be remembered that communication is a two-way street: Students should see themselves not just as learning about Japan through language acquisition, but also as enabling themselves to engage in discourse in Japanese about their own concerns and about their own culture. There is a genuine likelihood that American students may accompany visitors on sightseeing or shopping trips within the United States. Teachers should prepare students for such eventualities, and, by doing so, make it more likely that such opportunities will present themselves.

LANGUAGE IN CULTURE

The most important context, and the most difficult for the learner to master, is the cultural context. In order to teach realistic Japanese, it will be necessary to teach the culture that underlies the communication strategies used in Japanese. This means teaching language *in* culture. Instruction will need to attend to the development of socially acceptable communication and behavioral strategies in the following three areas:

- culture of linguistic communication
- behavioral culture
- elementary etiquette

CULTURE OF LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION

To communicate effectively in Japanese means making grammatical choices depending on to whom one is speaking and about whom one is speaking. Students will need to learn a distal (polite *desu/-masu*) style appropriate for interactions with strangers and people with whom they are not personally close. They should also be able to use direct (*da/-ta*) style forms, and trained to differentiate between addressees: direct style speech to same-age peers and distal style to adults with whom some courtesy is required (teachers, visitors). Since learners' same-age Japanese peers are likely to use direct style forms when talking to many adults (for example, local shopkeepers)[16], teachers concerned with realism will need to strive to strike a balance between teaching the language of their peers and preparing students for future adult use of language, in which the more formal distal (*-masu*) is used among people of limited acquaintance.

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[16] We are grateful to Hiroko Kataoka for this observation.

Students will need to understand and reflect in their use of Japanese the fact that sentences that are superficially grammatically similar to English ones may have quite different pragmatic consequences: *ikitai desu ka* ('do you want to go') is a question of fact, and *ikimasen ka* ('won't you go?') is an invitation. It is not sufficient that students transfer American strategies of communication to Japanese; communication must be informed by knowledge of, and functional skills in, the cultural context in which the language is used. The Japanese speaker who asks *katta n desu ka* ('Did you buy it?') wishes to know whether an item is newly obtained; the student who jokingly responds, in the fashion common to American male teenagers, *iie, nusunda n desu* ('No, I stole it') has not only missed the point of the question, but has produced a reply that, if not merely baffling, will surely seem insulting. The student who cannot use appropriate Japanese communication strategies will likely come across as uncooperative, boorish, or rude, even where no offense was intended.

Students will need to learn to express facts and opinions in socially-acceptable ways, often involving strategies of indirection in situations where direct assertions would be employed in English. In the case of teenagers, much greater directness is tolerated by Japanese society than in the case of adults. However, teachers must also recognize the need to prepare students for adult interactions.

BEHAVIORAL CULTURE

The dynamics of American interpersonal behavior commonly do not carry over into Japanese. Students should be aware of the importance of the group in Japanese social organization and maintaining group harmony. Verbal sparring and argument for the sake of argument are widely frowned upon in a culture which places a premium on cooperative interactions. Students may need to be trained to give positive expressions of support and empathy in order to interact effectively with Japanese peers.

Students will need to be aware of the importance of non-verbal culture. These include such areas as the significance of closed doors and silence. In Japan, the family member who sits reading in a corner of the kitchen while the others engage in conversation *is* participating, albeit indirectly, as opposed to one who shuts herself in her room. Teachers will need to alert students to the fact that they cannot interpret Japanese cultural behavior in American terms.

ELEMENTARY ETIQUETTE

Students should be prepared for home-stays and home visits in Japan so that they can function as a "good guest." They should be provided with information concerning what constitute appropriate roles for host and guest, and what each are expected to contribute during the visit. They should also be acquainted with basic etiquette for entering homes: how to remove shoes, where to wear slippers, how to use bathroom facilities (e.g., 'don't wear bathroom slippers in the hallway,' 'close the door when finished').

Elementary principles for the giving and receiving of gifts should also be taught. Students should know on what occasions Japanese give gifts, timing of presentation, and how to respond. It is not expected that students should be conversant with detailed rules.

It is not the purpose of instruction to turn American students into Japanese. It is, however, important that they be adequately informed of Japanese expectations concerning social and linguistic behavior, so that they can interact in a manner that does not cause unreasonable or avoidable discomfort. Students should be provided with the information and training that will enable them to function in Japan and to make well-informed choices concerning how they will interact with Japanese. In a multi-cultural world, the ability to adapt to a different culture is a valuable skill and should be recognized as such.

Students should be encouraged to look for not only the differences, but also the similarities, between Japanese culture and their own. Both exist.

Instruction within this framework will focus on teaching language *in* culture, rather than language *and* culture. The motivational impact of "high" or artifactal culture (*noh*, *kabuki*, *origami*, *sushi*, etc.) should be recognized in that it points students toward some of what they will gain access to by developing their linguistic skills. But it should be remembered that the kinds of things that are likely to motivate high school students are not necessarily part of "high" culture in Japan. *Animé* cartoons, in particular, have proved to be a strong source of student interest in learning Japanese and are more likely to be successful in motivating students than *noh* theater. Teaching of either high or popular culture should not be permitted to dilute instruction in the language and associated communicative and behavioral cultures.

CHAPTER SIX

WRITTEN LANGUAGE

GOALS AND PRINCIPLES

Instruction in the Japanese written language should conform with the framework outlined in the preceding chapters, and as with instruction in the spoken language, should target a level of proficiency that begins to be useful to the learner and those with whom the learner interacts. Written language activities should be realistic, and should correspond to the kinds of reading and writing that a student might reasonably expect to engage in when visiting Japan or interacting with native speakers of Japanese.

GOALS OF WRITTEN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The following broad goals for written language instruction are suggested. Instruction in the written language should

- enable the learner to meet essential, immediate communication needs with respect to reading and writing Japanese;
- enable the learner to develop a useful repertoire of strategies for obtaining information from written texts, including texts that contain unfamiliar characters, words and linguistic material;
- enable the learner to communicate in a simple fashion in writing; and
- provide the learner with a solid foundation for the development of future skills in the written language.

The second and third sections of this chapter address global skills of reading and writing, while the fourth section defines mechanical skills in the various scripts. Recommendations concerning instructional strategies are included. For further discussion of the issues involved in reading, teachers and administrators are also referred to chapter 3 of Unger, et al. (1993), much of which is echoed in this chapter.

PRINCIPLES OF WRITTEN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Design of local curricula with respect to written language should take into account the following general principles.

Students are not reading and writing their native language. To the American student, Japanese is a foreign language. Students cannot be expected to recognize linguistic forms (words, inflectional endings, etc.) in writing that they have not encountered before and should not be required to engage in written activities that require them to recognize or employ these. Moreover, learners lack sufficient basis in the language or the communicative culture of Japan to make the kinds of decisions about texts that native speakers would automatically do. Instructional methods based on the written language and traditionally employed with native speakers in elementary school classrooms in Japan are inappropriate in the American classroom.

Written language involves more than orthography. The challenges posed by the Japanese writing system are apt to tempt teacher and learner to focus on the mechanics of orthography as opposed to the broader tasks of developing skills and strategies for successful reading. The phenomenon of the student who knows many *kanji* in isolation but cannot make sense of a text is familiar to teachers.

Students need to be trained in broader strategies of reading: skimming and scanning texts, predicting content, determining factual content and drawing inferences. They should be encouraged to apply native-language reading strategies to Japanese texts, although they will need to be careful not to transfer cultural assumptions about either the text or its background.

Tasks should be realistic. Classroom and homework tasks should be realistic activities that students might have occasion to perform in real life. Realistic tasks include such things as extracting information from schedules and menus. Reading children's stories is not realistic, and may actually be harder for students than non-literary material geared to adults. Tasks should be in keeping with the intellectual levels of the students.

Tasks should accentuate what students can do. Although students need to be aware that the challenges they will encounter while learning to read Japanese are normal, the dimensions of the challenges should not be overemphasized or exaggerated. Classroom and homework tasks involving written material should be designed to allow learners to discover at a very early stage that they can derive relevant information from realistic materials, even though they may not necessarily understand much other information in the text.

READING SKILLS

TARGETED PROFICIENCIES

Students should be able to extract information from unfamiliar Japanese language texts for participation in spoken or written communication with Japanese — at the level of linguistic and skill specifications in chapter 3 — so that they can answer questions, in Japanese or English, or act upon the information that they have obtained.

Reading should be silent and conducted at an appropriate speed to the goals of the reading task. Reading should be direct and not mediated by artificial strategies (i.e., students should resort neither to interlinear glosses in alphabetic or other native language script nor to English translation in order to interpret a text).

TYPES OF TEXT

Texts need not consist of continuous prose, but may be any coherent written language material; a text may be as simple as a word on a price label. Complex texts such as newspaper and magazine articles and short stories will normally be beyond the capabilities of high school students.

The primary criterion for text selection is authenticity of the reading task. What the student is required to read should represent the kind of material that students might need to read in order to fulfill necessary tasks in the spoken language, to maintain social relations with Japanese speakers, and to maintain themselves physically in Japan.

Texts that are especially appropriate for high school students include:

- menus (especially those featuring Western food items)
- advertisements
- product labels and instructions
- travel brochures
- bus and train schedules
- shopping lists
- cinema advertisements
- calendars, showing schedules of activities
- when written in a colloquial style, brief informal messages, memoranda, postcards, thank-you notes, e-mail messages

TYPES OF SKILL

It is not necessary that students be able to understand all or even most information in all the texts that they encounter. However, students should be able to extract orthographically accessible information from a text that is within the range of topic areas, communicative functions, and concepts specified in chapter 3. Students should not let the presence of unfamiliar material (grammatical patterns, vocabulary, or *kanji*) prevent them from deriving information that is potentially accessible.

Within these parameters, students should be able to

scan, that is, go through a text quickly in order to identify specific information, in order for example to answer a question posed by someone who seeks information. For example, students might be able to pick out

- Names of selected major cities in Japan on a schedule, destination sign or itinerary.
- Names of major cities in the United States on a schedule or itinerary.

skim, that is, run the eyes briefly over a text in order to determine general topic matter, or when the familiarity of the material permits, determine the gist of the text.

read texts intensively, with close attention to linguistic detail, when the text is completely within the linguistic and orthographic range of the student (e.g., informal notes, postcards, letters, e-mail messages). Extensive reading, for pleasure or general interest, is unlikely to be a possibility at the high school level, and therefore should not constitute part of the curriculum.

Textual skills

It is not expected that students will develop sophisticated textual skills in a high school program. However, students should have some awareness of how texts are organized. In particular, they should be able to recognize the textual structure of

- informal letters, postcards
- an address on an envelope

Students should be able to read texts written in horizontal and vertical script. They should be aware that the rules for writing each kind of script are different and that horizontal script is rapidly becoming the norm in Japan.[17]

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[17] Japanese government documents are now written in horizontal script. Vertical script is generally retained in belles lettres, academic publications in the humanities, and many of the social sciences, as well as in newspapers.

LINGUISTIC AND ORTHOGRAPHIC AUTHENTICITY

In keeping with the guidelines on authenticity presented in the first section of chapter 5, written language material should be linguistically authentic, that is, it must be completely authentic with respect to the linguistic structure of the message (i.e., with respect to grammar, selection of vocabulary, and pragmatic use of language).

It is recommended that whenever possible, texts should be orthographically authentic. That is, texts should be presented as an educated adult would normally write them. However, transitional deployment of *hiragana* in contexts in which adults would normally write *kanji* is an option. Teachers who take this route should remember that, owing to the lack of white space to word boundaries, texts that are written entirely in *hiragana* (for example, children's stories) are cognitively difficult to process even for native speakers. If *hiragana* is used transitionally, the period of exclusive *hiragana* use should be brief. It is preferable to employ *furigana* glosses on *kanji* once students' *hiragana* reading skills are sufficiently well established to permit use of smaller print. Those teachers will also need to ensure that students do not become locked into character-by-character decoding strategies of reading.

WRITING SKILLS

TARGETED SKILL LEVELS

Students with threshold-level competence should be able to write brief, stylistically simple texts using *hiragana*, *katakana*, and some *kanji*.

STYLE OF TEXTS

Student writing should reflect an informal colloquial style, the content written as the student would express it in the spoken language. Students need to be made aware that written communications of adults are stylistically and orthographically significantly more complex than those that they are attempting, and can be alerted to some of these complexities through reading activities.

Within the boundaries of a colloquial-language-based informal style, student writing should aim for authenticity with respect to its linguistic and pragmatic characteristics.

KINDS OF TEXTS

Texts appropriate for high school writing exercises include:

- notes arranging or changing appointments to meet others
- notes asking others to perform simple personal favors or provide information

- notes expressing appreciation for hospitality or favors
- postcards and short letters or e-mail messages reporting on recent activities
- *Nengajoo* (New Year cards)
- short responses to all the above
- taking of brief memos commensurate with spoken language skills (e.g., simple phone messages)
- copying of addresses and names

CHOICE OF SCRIPT

It is acceptable for high school students to employ *hiragana* to write words normally written in *kanji*, if the students do not yet have the use of the relevant *kanji*. The effort to communicate in writing will generally be appreciated by Japanese speakers, and should override concerns of complete orthographic authenticity at this stage in the students' learning career.

Students should not write texts in Latin alphabetic script, or write drafts in alphabetic script (or other native language script) for later transcription into Japanese script.

MECHANICS

ORDER OF INSTRUCTION

Introduction of the Japanese scripts should be delayed, if possible, until students have achieved at least an elementary command of the phonological system of the language, and preferably some command of vocabulary and the grammatical system. Teachers may find it especially useful to begin with *katakana*, since this will enable students to use a variety of authentic textual materials, such as items that include names of major American cities, or common American first and family names.

If the textbook employs *hiragana* as the medium of instruction, teachers may prefer to begin by introducing *hiragana*. Whichever approach is adopted students should be provided with access to a systematic system of transcription into Roman script, so as to avoid the problems that arise when students invent their own transcriptions.

The *hiragana* and *katakana* scripts should be introduced in the context of words and texts, rather than in isolation by means of the traditional *kana* tables, which should be limited to review purposes only.[18] Although *kanji* instruction in Japanese elementary schools traditionally follows the introduction of the *katakana* and *hiragana* scripts, there is nothing inherently necessary about this sequence. The exoticism of *kanji* as a potential motivator for students may be usefully exploited. Judicious introduction of a small number of *kanji* is appropriate as early as the first year if this can be achieved in a meaningful, well-contextualized and non-threatening fashion. Full scale introduction of *kanji* should probably begin after students have acquired a substantial command of the spoken language.

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[18] Mechanical recitation of the kana tables is a practice carried over from written language instruction in Japanese elementary schools. For learners of Japanese, however, the emphasis on individual characters in sequence may tend to encourage a decoding

HIRAGANA SKILLS

In the *hiragana* script, students should be able to

- identify all *hiragana* symbols (and their combinations) in the context of words and text when written in common typefaces and in non-idiosyncratic hand-printed form.
- write all *hiragana* symbols in a hand-printed style that is readily recognizable by Japanese readers, and conforms generally with accepted standards of balance and proportion. Student handwriting should not emulate quirky features of typescript *hiragana* symbols (graphic liaisons, etc.) that are not normally found in hand-printed text.
- recognize and employ standard orthographic conventions for the representation of long vowels and long consonants.

KATAKANA SKILLS

In the *katakana* script, students should be able to

- identify all *katakana* symbols (and combinations) in the context of words and text when written in common typefaces or in non-idiosyncratic hand-printed form.
- distinguish words requiring *katakana* use from those that are normally written in *hiragana* or *kanji*.
- write all *katakana* symbols in a hand-printed style that is readily recognizable by Japanese readers and conforms with accepted standards of balance and proportion.
- employ standard orthographic conventions for the representation of long vowels and long consonants in *katakana*.
- write their own names legibly in *katakana*.
- identify the following when encountered in texts, including texts containing unfamiliar material, unknown *kanji*, grammatical constructions, and so forth. Since these are at the level of lexical items, the exact choice

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approach to reading, rather than the integrated comprehension skills sought within this framework.

should be determined by the goals of the program. It is advisable, however, that the list be comprehensive, so as to ensure that all *katakana* and their combinations are covered:

- common food items such as those found on restaurant menus
- names of common clothing items
- other common objects in the environment
- common, or well known, American proper names
- well known place names and geographical terms

KANJI SKILLS

With respect to *kanji*, students should

- be able to recognize up to approximately 120 kanji in the context of *kanji jukugo* (compounds) or in combination with *hiragana* (and *katakana*) in other lexical items. The above figure is for advisory purposes only. It is explicitly not our intent to perpetuate the common myth that number of *kanji* taught equals quality of instruction.
- be able to integrate the *kanji* words they have learned into their writing, either from memory or after checking with a source. At the secondary level it is more important that students be able to recognize *kanji*, than write them from memory. It is suggested that the number of *kanji* that students can write from memory should probably not exceed about 50.
- be able to write *kanji* that they have learned neatly in a *kaisho* (hand-printed) style appropriate to the use of a pen or pencil, so that their handwriting is easily legible to a Japanese native speaker.
- be familiar with the general principles of *kanji* organization so that they can copy a hand-printed (*kaisho*) name and address legibly. Students should be able to determine stroke order and direction of the kanji that they have learned.
- be able to use *okurigana* correctly to represent verbal and adjectival inflections with respect to the *kanji* that they have learned.
- recognize automatically public notices regularly indicating entrances, exits, emergency exits, danger, and restroom facilities.
- Possess an elementary factual knowledge concerning *kanji:* their historical origins, the existence of *on* and *kun* readings, the concepts of stroke order, stroke counts, radicals, and contexts where *kanji* are normally used in modern Japanese writing.[19]

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[19] Students who are especially advanced might be introduced to elementary kanji dictionary skills during the fourth year.

Instructional considerations

Number of *kanji*

As in the case of vocabulary in the spoken language, these guidelines do not specify an inventory of *kanji* that must be taught. The choice of which *kanji* to introduce should depend on the specific goals of local curricula. For example, schools and districts whose Japanese language curricula are constructed around exchanges that send students to Japanese high schools might reasonably choose to focus on *kanji* that are directly related to the goals of the exchange program.

In view of the degree of mastery targeted in other specifications in these guidelines, it is probable that approximately 120 *kanji* might reasonably be recognized by high school students at the end of four years of instruction. A substantially higher number is *not* recommended and may be indicative of inadequate attention to instruction in other, more communicative aspects of the language. It is not necessary, moreover, to have students write from memory all, or even most, of the *kanji* that are introduced. If teachers are compelled by local conditions to choose between development of active communicative skills in the spoken language and the teaching of *kanji*, it is preferable that they teach fewer *kanji*.

Criteria for selection

We recommend the following criteria for selecting which *kanji* should be taught are

- their practical utility to the student in getting around in Japan or in facilitating everyday communication on the basis of information derived from written materials; and
- the extent to which they can readily be incorporated into communicative instruction in the classroom.

Teach *kanji* in context

Kanji should be learned in the context of words and the contexts in which those words are used. It is inappropriate to require students to learn *kanji* in and not related to immediate linguistic tasks. Students should not be required to learn lists of individual *kanji* or isolated words containing *kanji*, nor should they learn *kanji* in terms of English translations.

It is neither necessary nor desirable that students learn all other readings (*on* and *kun* readings) when they first encounter a new *kanji*: however, they may be made aware of the existence of such readings and may be apprised of what those readings are. The principle that *kanji* should be taught in the context of words should be maintained.

Informal exposure

As early as the first year, it may be advantageous to begin exposing students to authentic materials containing *kanji* if the presence of *kanji* is not crucial to the students' ability to extract pertinent information from the text. Students need to learn early that they do not need to know all of the *kanji* in a text, but can make intelligent guesses about content on the basis of other textual and contextual information. When students are informally exposed to *kanji* in this fashion, it should be impressed upon them that they will not be required to learn words written in unfamiliar *kanji*.

Teachers may have occasion to employ texts that contain familiar vocabulary for which the *kanji* have not yet been taught. In such cases, it may be preferable to use *kanji* with *furigana*, rather than to expose students to texts written entirely in *hiragana*, which are visually more difficult to process. Again, students should be informed that they need not learn the *kanji* in question until they are formally introduced to it.

GENERAL MECHANICS

Some introduction should be given to the general mechanics of handwriting, though this aspect should not be over-emphasized at the high school level. Students should be instructed in basic stroke order, stroke direction, and stroke types in *hiragana*, *katakana*, and *kanji*. They should be aware of the cultural value assigned to these mechanical aspects of the writing systems, and that they will be expected to conform to orthographic standards as their skills develop. Instruction in the mechanics of *kanji*, though necessary in the interests of legibility, is of lower priority than that of the development of other language skills.

Students should be able to write in horizontal script, appropriate to the informal style of their writing. They need not be able to write in vertical script. Students should be aware that *kanji* numerals are now primarily limited to vertical script, and that Arabic numerals are normally employed in horizontal script to represent numerical concepts, and reflect this in their usage. Instruction in writing should include basic information concerning the form and placement of commas (*ten*) and periods (*maru*). Students should not use word division (*wakachi-gaki*) in their writing.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ON THE ROLE OF EXPLANATION AND TRANSCRIPTION

We now briefly address two residual issues which superficially run counter to the emphasis on communication in this work. It is the intent of this framework that instruction should be geared to realistic communication. To this end, teachers and students should be using Japanese in the classroom as much as possible, even for classroom management. However, it is also important to note that students are learning Japanese in the classroom as a foreign language, and lack the huge additional inputs that would be automatically provided by the surrounding society, as would be the case if instruction were to take place in Japan, or as in an ESL classroom in the United States. To assist students with the process of learning to communicate in this environment, therefore, teachers should ensure that

- students should be provided with grammatical, pragmatic and socio-linguistic information in English; and
- students should be provided with access to a pedagogical transcription, that is, a means of transcribing into an alphabetic script the sounds of the Japanese language.

EXPLANATION IN ENGLISH

The process by which high school students learn Japanese in the classroom is different from that of Japanese children. The latter acquire their language in the context of their own society with the massive inputs from all around them. High school students learning the language in this country must make do with much less. Moreover, themselves on the threshold of linguistic adulthood in their own languages, the students must bring additional learning strategies to bear if they are to develop the early accuracy that will enable them to advance their Japanese language skills to a high level of proficiency. Explicit knowledge of grammar provides students with the means of reflecting on and talking about what patterns are well-formed and what patterns are not, and why it should be so. It allows them to formulate questions about the language and to understand explanation when given to them. Knowledge of grammar also provides students with concepts and strategies to enable them to learn about new word forms and patterns, to utilize textbooks, grammars, and dictionaries, and to predict possible meanings. It also allows students to contrast and compare patterns of communication encountered in Japanese and English, or other native language.

Students also need to be provided with a great deal of information about Japanese pragmatic strategies and social relations that bear on language use. They will need to be able to come to terms with both the differences and similarities between Japanese culture and their own. In particular, they will need to be informed about various parameters of social interaction that will affect the style of language they should employ. Such information will need to be up-to-date and will need to avoid stereotyping.

While it is desirable that instruction be conducted in Japanese as much as possible, the complexity of grammatical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic information that must be conveyed is such that it is inefficient to convey such information in Japanese, especially given the relatively low level of language skills possessed by even advanced students. Nothing about the need to provide explanation in English, however, should be construed as conflicting with the communicative thrust of these guidelines. To avoid unnecessary use of English in class, teachers will find it useful to demarcate specific times in the lesson in which English can be used, and restrict students to Japanese at all other times. A team-teaching approach where native-speaking Japanese instructors are paired with native-speaking English instructors is also likely to prove effective in avoiding problems of overuse of English.

PEDAGOGICAL TRANSCRIPTION

Students should be provided with a systematic pedagogical transcription into Latin (alphabetic) script (*romaji*), that is, a means of representing the Japanese language in a familiar form of writing to assist instruction. There is considerable anecdotal evidence that when students are not provided with a systematic pedagogical transcription, they invent their own, less systematic transcriptions.

Students should be familiar with one or both of the two major systematic transcription systems, the Hepburn system[20] or the Kunrei-shiki/Bloch/Jorden system. The Hepburn system offers the initial advantage of providing easier mnemonic access to pronunciation for naïve learners, but is not especially useful for grammatical analysis. The Hepburn system is in widespread use in the press and in the non-linguistic literature on Japan. It is also widely employed in the headings of Japanese-English dictionaries. The Kunrei-shiki/Bloch/Jorden transcription systems require learners to learn a few initial pronunciation rules, but afford a superior analysis of verbal inflections and many word formation processes.

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[20] For typographic ease, this document uses a (non-standard) variant of the Hepburn system, with long vowels represented by doubling the letter rather than using a macron (i.e., "oo" rather than "ō").

The use of Latin script is intended to enable students to

- have access to a pedagogical transcription to facilitate access to information about the spoken language, for example, grammatical description. Teachers should feel free to use Latin script for this purpose;
- recognize Japanese words when they see them in Western-language sources;
- represent Japanese words (especially proper names) to non-readers of Japanese;
- access Japanese-English dictionaries;
- access English-language reference works on Japanese, many of the most important of which employ Latin script; and
- input Japanese on a computer keyboard. This is of particular importance, given the growing ubiquitousness of communication by e-mail.

Students should not be required or encouraged to do the following:

- read Latin script, silently or aloud, as a reading exercise in Japanese;
- write Japanese text in Latin script by way of exercise, or for subsequent transcription into Japanese script; and
- transcribe Japanese text into Roman (or other native-language) script. Students should be able to read Japanese script without mediation of their native script.

CHAPTER EIGHT

TEACHER PREPARATION AND TRAINING

It will not be possible to hold students to high standards of linguistic proficiency represented by this volume unless teachers are themselves adequately prepared, with sufficient linguistic proficiency, knowledge of language and linguistics, and pedagogical training to teach to those standards. Even for experienced teachers, the standards will represent a significant stretch, and many will likely find that they will need to modify their teaching strategies substantively. It will be important that curricular design projects be paralleled by efforts to develop coherent programs of teacher preparation, certification and endorsement, and in-service training that are geared to the communicative objectives of the curriculum and to the new demands that the curriculum will place on the teacher. One recent study suggests that fewer than 50 percent of Japanese language teachers nationwide are currently certified to teach the language (The Laurasian Institution, 1996). Moreover, since certification and endorsement criteria currently often bear little relation to the requirements of the curriculum, curricular development will need to be accompanied by long-term investment in training and substantive collaboration by professional organizations and state administrators to raise certification and endorsement standards and bring them in line with a curriculum oriented toward the development of functional language skills. It is to be hoped that efforts such as the those currently being undertaken in the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards will create a climate conducive to more realistic certification and endorsement criteria and the development of well-founded Japanese teacher training programs in the universities.

The present authors' experience with the dissemination of the standards in this volume indicates that both intending and in-service teachers will need extensive training in classroom methods known to be effective in enabling American students to communicate in Japanese, along with corresponding assessment techniques. Teachers who are native speakers may need to bear in mind that for American students Japanese is a *foreign* language, and that assumptions and pedagogical practices appropriate to native-language instruction in Japan, especially those based on instruction in the written language, may be inappropriate for teaching Japanese to students who do not already have a command of the spoken language. Conversely, many non-native-speaking teachers of Japanese may need to significantly improve their language skills to meet the standards of this volume. Given the substantive differences in linguistic and social behavior observable between Japanese-speaking and English-speaking cultures, it is desirable that all Japanese language teachers should have acquired personal experience of these differences through extended experience living in Japan. Adequate functional skills will typically be attained by formal training and experience in spoken language communication, equivalent to at least 600 hours (i.e., four years in a college program) of classroom instruction in the language, plus extended experience of six months or more in Japan.

The framework proposed in this volume makes new demands on teacher knowledge and skills. Professional training and certification programs will need to address these new demands, and in particular, the linguistic knowledge base that will enable teachers provide effective instruction. It is recommended that such programs should, as minimal requirements, incorporate components in the following fields:

- Japanese language structure
- Japanese sociolinguistics
- Japanese discourse or conversational analysis
- methods in teaching Japanese language for communication
- methods in assessing Japanese language for communication
- Japanese sociology or cultural anthropology
- second language acquisition, teaching methodologies, and approaches

It should be apparent that communication-oriented curricular framework presented in this volume demands a rather more sophisticated understanding of Japanese language and the nature of Japanese linguistic interactions than many practicing teachers currently possess. To teach effectively to these standards, teachers will, in effect, need to become true applied linguists, well informed not only about such matters as morphology (the form of words), phonology (the sound shape of words), and the writing system, but also about the structure of discourse and the pragmatic and sociolinguistic use of language. The challenge will be to build a cadre of accomplished teachers who can translate this understanding into instructional and assessment practices that lead students to meaningful communication in Japanese.

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APPENDIX A

A GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND KEY TO SYMBOLS AND CONVENTIONS

@: A symbol used in the inventories to indicate that relevant pattern is primarily for recognition only.

...: A "trailing off" intonation, often indicating that the speaker has left other things unsaid. Also used in the "essential patterns and phrases" to indicate skipping of items in a list.

ADJ-NOUN: Adjectival noun. A form that has most of same properties as adjectives, but, like a noun, does not inflect. Like a noun, however, it uses the copula (see below) to carry tense and aspect information. Example: *kirei da* 'is pretty,' *ganko da* 'is stubborn.'

ADJ: Adjective.

ADJECTIVE. A word that has multiple forms, two of which are *-i* and *-katta.* (This structural characterization is due to Eleanor Jorden (1986). It can normally be modified by adverbs such as *chotto*. Examples: *takai* is 'high,' 'expensive,' *hurui* is 'old.'

AFFECTIVE: *Affective skills* refer to the ability of the speaker to affect the attitude of the hearer to the information. *Affective particles* are particles occurring at the end of the sentence (for example, *yo* and *ne*) that indicate the attitude to the information that the speaker wishes the hearer to adopt.

AUTOMATICITY: The ability to engage in cognitive processes without conscious effort or attention. In the context of language learning, automaticity refers to the processing (recognition and production) of form and structures with minimal involvement of attention mechanisms, so that attention can be directed to information content.

CONCEPT: A linguistic manifestation of our perception of the world and how it is structured. Corresponds to "Notion" in van Ek (1976).

CONTEXT: The situation in which language is used. The context can be the physical context of the real world, including the relationship between speaker and hearer. It can also be created by the discourse itself or by the speaker's and hearer's assumptions about the world. In the classroom, contexts will often be created or simulated by the use of props such as pictures or physical objects.

COPULA: A linking word, normally occurring in the form of *da* and its variants *desu*, *datta*, *desita*, and so forth. The form *na* in *kirei na* is also a form of the copula.

DECLARATIVE: Declarative knowledge is knowledge that one can describe. To have a declarative knowledge of grammar is to be able to describe and talk about grammatical patterns.

DEICTIC: Having to do with DEIXIS.

DEIXIS: Using language to point out things in the physical environment or in the discourse. Deixis is typically associated in Japanese with *ko-so-a-do* series words. Honorific expressions can also have the function of deixis, by identifying who the speaker is talking about.

DIRECT STYLE: The style of speech associated with the use of forms such as *da* and *datta*. It is typically used to address persons with whom one is socially and emotionally intimate (close friends, family members). This term (and DISTAL STYLE) are due to Eleanor H. Jorden (1986). Also known as plain or informal style.

DISTAL STYLE: A style of speaking, characterized by the use of the forms desu and -masu, that signals social and emotional distance between the speaker and hearer and a concern for the hearer's standing. See also DIRECT STYLE.

ELLIPSIS: The omission of words and phrases that contain information that can be reconstructed by the hearer from the context. See also ZERO PRONOUN.

F: Female speaker. Indicates patterns more typically associated with female speech than with male speech.

FOCUS: The element in the sentence that carries the information that is of most concern to the speaker. Typically, this is new information or information that is intended to fill a gap in the hearers knowledge. In the spoken language, focus is strongly associated with the use of the case particles *ga* and *o*.

FUNCTION: The communicative use to which a particular pattern of language is put in order to achieve the speaker's communicative goals in interacting with others. In this volume we use the term *Communicative Function*.

IMPERFECTIVE: Indicating that an action or event has not yet been realized, or that it happens regularly.

M: Male speaker. Indicates patterns more typically associated with male speech than with female speech.

NEG: Negative. It the inventories this means any contextually relevant negative predicate.

NOUN: A word that can be preceded by an adjective or a determiner such as *kono*, *sono*, or *ano*, and can be followed by a particle such as *o*, *ga*, or *ni*.

NOUN PHRASE: A noun, or a noun preceded by some modifier, such as an adjective, an adjectival noun, or a relative clause.

NP: Noun Phrase.

Ø: The zero (Ø) symbol denotes ellipsis (deliberate omission) of a particle or other word.

PERFECTIVE: Indicating that an action or event has been realized or completed.

PRAGMATICS: Relates to how language is used to convey meaning in ways that is not directly derivable from the grammar or other surface forms of the language.

PRED: Predicate.

PREDICATE: A verb, an adjective, or a noun or adjectival noun followed by the copula, and their modifiers.

REFERENT: The person or thing that the speaker is referring to. When known, the referent is omitted in spoken Japanese if no other need to make explicit reference exists.

SENTENCE: A full sentence (not a fragment) is minimally a predicate. It may be followed by sentence final particles, and contain any number of other elements. *[......S]* represents any arbitrary sentence. *S1* and *S2* denote different clauses within the same sentence.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS: Relates to how language is employed by members of different groups within a society. The term also relates to how people use language to manipulate social relations (see also PRAGMATICS).

VERB: A form that inflects (changes shape) and is not an adjective. A verb normally has variants ending in both *-u* and *-masu*. In the inventories, *V* represents some appropriate form of a verb preceding the verb ending in question; *V-te*, for example, stands for forms such as *katte* and *yonde*.

X, Y, Z: Arbitrary expressions. Normally these will refer to nouns, but they may refer to predicates or sentences in appropriate contexts.

ZERO PRONOUN: A gap left as a result of ellipsis when the referent of the discourse is well established and presumed by the speaker to be familiar to, or recoverable by, the hearer. Japanese zero pronouns (represented by Ø in the inventories) frequently correlate with use of unstressed pronouns in English, for example, Ø *iku*, 'I'll go (there).' versus *Boku ga iku* 'I'll go.'

APPENDIX B

TOPIC AREAS

1. Personal information
    - 1.1 Name
        - Give own name
        - Identify others by name
        - Inquire as to another person's name or identity

      Note: Learners should not use *-san* in reference to themselves or in-group members.
    - 1.2 Address
        - Ask for a person's address
        - Offer to write home address in English
        - Ask someone to write an address for them

      Note: Learners should know the order of information in Japanese addresses.
    - 1.3 Telephone number
    - 1.4 Age, date, and place of birth
        - Say how old one is
        - Ask the age and place of birth of others

      Note: Learners should demonstrate appropriate reticence in asking a person's age, and other personal information.

      Note: Learners should be able to use both Japanese reign periods, and the western calendar.
    - 1.5 Nationality
        - Identify self as United States citizen (or other nationality)
    - 1.6 Origin
        - Identify state and city or town of origin
    - 1.7 Gender
        - (Mostly for use in reference to third parties)
2. Family and home
    - 2.1 Family
        - Composition of family (including pets)
        - Marital status of siblings
        - Optional: Ethnic background(s) of family members
        - Optional: Religious background

      Note: Learners should be able to use family terms appropriate to in-group and out-group members.
    - 2.2 Occupations of family members
    - 2.3 Home
        - Describe the main features of the home

      Note: Learners will need information on the layout of Japanese houses and apartments.

3. Education and career
    3.1 Schooling
        - What kind of school they attend
        - What grade they are in

        Note: Learners will need information on the differences in the school systems and teacher-student relations.

        Note: Learners should be able to convert between Japanese and American systems.
    3.2 Travel to and from school
        - How they get to and from school
        - How long it takes
    3.3 Daily routines
        - When school begins and ends
        - How many hours a day they spend at school
        - How long each class lasts
        - How much homework they are assigned
        - What they do after school (school clubs and sports)
    3.4 School year
        - Approximate dates of quarters/terms and vacations
    3.5 Subjects
        - What subjects the students study
        - Which subjects they like and dislike
        - Which subjects they are good at, weak at

        Note: Learners should exhibit culturally appropriate modesty with respect to their academic achievements.
    3.6 Classroom management
        - Comprehend classroom instructions
        - Classroom assignments
    3.7 Future education
        - What plans learners have for further study
        - Possible college majors
    3.8 Future career
        - What jobs or professions learners would like to do after completing formal education.
4. Japanese and other languages
    4.1 Japanese language
        - How well they speak, understand, read, and write Japanese
        - Whether they consider it easy, difficult, interesting
        - Respond appropriately to praise of their Japanese.

        Note: Learners should exhibit culturally appropriate modesty in talking about their own skills and achievements.
    4.2 Talking about language
        - Ask what things are called in Japanese
        - Ask what words and phrases mean
        - Ask someone to repeat something

        Note: Learners should use appropriate politeness in asking others to repeat, and so on.

4.3 Other foreign languages
- Identify other languages by name, especially those of Europe and East Asia
- Discuss which other foreign languages they (and others) speak, understand, read, write, and how well

Note: Learners should display culturally appropriate modesty in talking about their own skills and achievements.

5. Leisure and recreation

5.1 Activities
- Say what hobbies, sports, or other interests they have
- Issue and receive invitations to take part in sports or other activities

5.2 Cinema, concerts, sports events
- Discuss preferences: identify favorite films, stars, bands, singers, and so on
- Issue and receive invitations to events and performances
- Give and receive directions to theaters, stadiums, and so on
- Make arrangements to meet friends in order to go to events and performances; make appointments
- Buy tickets, on the day, and in advance

5.3 Vacations
- Where they (will) go, what they (will) do on vacations
- Seek similar information from others

Note: Students should be provided with information about vacations in Japan and how they are used.

6. Travel and transportation

6.1 Transportation facilities
- Give and receive directions to a train station, bus stop, taxi stand
- Lost and found: inquire after lost property

6.2 Modes of transportation
- Give and receive directions to a location by public transport
- Discuss and compare modes of transportation (routes, speed, fares, convenience)
- Obtain necessary information to get to destination: how many stations to destination, where to transfer

6.3 Arrival and departure
- Discuss arrival and departure times

6.4 Fares and tickets
- Inquire about fares, special rates, one way and round trip
- Purchase tickets for express and local trains

6.5 Taxi
- Give simple directions to a taxi-driver

6.6 Sightseeing
- Discuss sightseeing plans and make arrangements for sightseeing in Japan and in their own locality

7. Health and welfare
   7.1 Parts of the body
   - Refer to major parts of the body to locate pain or injury

   7.2 Personal comfort
   - Say whether they are too hot, too cold, tired, ill, or in pain

   Note: Expressions of heat, cold, hunger, or thirst may be taken as criticism of hospitality.

   7.3 Hygiene
   - Inquire about bathing, toilet laundry facilities (availability, location)

   Note: Students will need information about bath and toilet facilities, together with etiquette concerning use of these facilities during homestays and home visits.

   7.4 Medical Services
   - Buy over-the-counter medicine at a pharmacy
   - Be able to seek the assistance of others in obtaining medical and dental services

   Note: Students will need information about emergency services and how to obtain them.

8. Shopping
   8.1 Shopping facilities
   - Discuss where to buy things: which items are sold where, which stores are better, cheaper
   - Ask how to get to and give directions to stores

   8.2 In the Store
   - Ask where items are
   - Ask if items are available
   - Ask to be shown items
   - Ask permission to try articles (clothes, shoes, electronic goods)
   - Ask if there are alternative items that are cheaper, bigger, different color, and so on
   - Complete or politely terminate a transaction

   Note: Students should be aware that clothing and shoe sizes are different from those in the United States.

   8.3 Prices
   - Ask about prices, discounts

   Note: Classroom activities should avoid giving the mistaken impression that Japanese haggle with storekeepers.

9. Food and drink
   9.1 Invitations
   - Issue and receive invitations to eat or drink

   Note: Students must be able to politely decline invitations without causing offense.

   9.2 Types of food and drink
   - Express likes, dislikes and preferences

9.3 Eating out
  - Discuss places where one can eat or drink
  - Discuss selection of food and drink
  - Order food or drink in a restaurant, cafeteria, or café

10. Services
  10.1 Post office
    - Obtain and give directions to a post office or mail box
    - Ask about postage for air, surface, and express delivery of letters and parcels
    - Ask how many days it will take to deliver a letter or parcel
    - Buy stamps
  10.2 Telephone
    - Obtain and give directions to public telephones
    - Ask and give a telephone number
    - Buy telephone cards/obtain change
    - Get a person to come to the phone
  10.3 Police
    - Obtain and give directions to a police box
    - Ask for directions at a police box
11. Weather and climate
  11.1 Weather
    - Seek and give information about how the weather was, is, or is likely to be
  11.2 Climate
    - Characterize the climate in their home region in the four seasons
    - Obtain information about the climate in Japan in the four seasons
12. Geography
  12.1 Geography of Japan
    - Identify major islands, regional divisions, prefectures, and cities in Japan
  12.2 Regional geography:
    - Identify major cities and geographical features in their region
    - Give populations of their state and the local community
    - Identify major industries, local landmarks, and places of potential interest to Japanese visitors to the region
  12.3 National geography
    - Identify states and major cities, geographical divisions, geographical features, and tourist attractions of their country in the accepted Japanese pronunciations
  12.4 World geography
    - Identify major countries cities, geographical divisions, and geographical features in the accepted Japanese pronunciations

APPENDIX C

COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS

1. SOCIALIZING

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
1.1 Greetings		
greetings appropriate to time of day and person *Note:* greetings are used only on first meeting of the day	*ohayoo gozaimasu* *ohayoo* *Note:* Casual style only; to be used among peers *konnichi wa* *konban wa*	S: *Ohayoo gozaimasu.* T: *Ohayoo (gozaimasu).*
greeting house guest	*irasshai*	
greetings used by store personnel	@ *irasshaimase* (response not necessary)	
on the phone	*moshimoshi*	
1.2 Introductions		
introducing oneself	*[name] desu* *Note:* Do not use *-san* in reference to the self.	*Hajimemashite, Suuzan desu.*
introducing family members (with appropriate hand gestures)	*[name] desu* *Note:* Do not use *-san* in reference to family members.	*Imooto no Naomi desu.*
introducing others (with appropriate hand gestures)	*[name]-san desu*	*Yamada-san desu.*
following up or responding to introductions	*hajimemashite*	A: *Tanaka-desu. Hajimemashite.* B: *Hajimemashite.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
	doozo yoroshiku *yoroshiku onegai shimasu* *kochira koso*	A: *Tanaka desu. Doozo yoroshiku.* B: *Miruzu desu. Kochira koso yoroshiku onegai shimasu.*
1.3 On entering private space		
inviting a person into one's home, room, or office	*doozo ohairi kudasai* @ *oagari kudasai*	A: *Doozo ohairi kudasai.* B: *Shitsurei shimasu.*
inviting a person into a Japanese home		
as one enters, acknowledging the intrusion into private space	*shitsurei shimasu*	A: *Doozo.* B: *Shitsurei shimasu.*
as one enters a home	*ojama shimasu*	A: *Doozo.* B: *Ojama shimasu.*
1.4 Leave taking		
formal parting	*ja, shitsurei shimasu* (parting initiated by speaker) *sayoonara* (not common among adults)	
casual leave-taking (for use among friends)	*ja* *ja, mata* *ja ne*	
at night	*oyasumi nasai*	
inviting to come again	*mata kite kudasai* @ *mata irashite kudasai* *mata doozo*	
when temporarily leaving home (or base location)	*itte kimasu* *itte mairimasu*	A: *Itte kimasu.* B: *Itte (i)rasshai.*

said to person leaving temporarily	*itte irasshai*	A: *Itte mairimasu.* B: *Itte (i)rasshai.*
excusing oneself briefly from a room	*chotto shitsurei shimasu.*	A: *Chotto shitsurei shimasu.* B: *Doozo.*

1.5 On returning

indicating that one has returned home	*tadaima*	A: *Tadaima.* B: *Okaeri nasai.*
welcoming someone back	*okaeri nasai*	

1.6 Meals and food

before beginning a meal	*itadakimasu*	
on completing a meal, to the host/hostess	*gochisoosama (deshita)*	
before eating	*oishisoo desu nee* *kirei desu nee*	*Aa, sashimi desu ne. Oishisoo desu nee.*
while eating	*oishii desu* *totemo oishii desu*	A: *Ikaga desu ka.* B: *Oishii desu.*
after eating	*oishikatta desu* *totemo oishikatta desu*	*Oishikatta desu. Gochisoo-sama deshita.*
courteously declining an invitation to eat an item (with appropriate hand gesture)	*iya, (X wa) chotto...*	A: *Nattoo, doo desu ka.* B: *Iya, ...(natto wa/sore wa) chotto...*
accepting an invitation to eat or drink *Note:* Students should be aware of older practices of polite refusal, however, these are not typical of young persons' behavior	*arigatoo gozaimasu* *itadakimasu* *Note:* Students will need to know that a host does not ask if the guest would like something to eat or drink.	A: *Doozo.* B: *Arigatoo gozaimasu. Itadakimasu.*

1.7 Handing over

on handing over a requested item	*doozo*	A: *Onegai shimasu.* B: *Kore desu ka. Doozo.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
handing over something that one is obliged to hand over, e.g., homework	*hai*	T: *Sore dekimashita ka.* S: *Dekimashita. Hai.*
identifying the origin of a present *Note:* Formal, self-deprecatory expressions such as *tsumaranai mono desu ga*… should be recognized and their cultural significance understood, though these are probably not appropriate for use by teenagers.	*X no mono desu ga…*	*Kore, Washinton-shuu no mono desu ga…*
receiving an item	*arigatoo gozaimasu* *doomo arigatoo gozaimasu*	
casual receipt of an item	*doomo* *arigatoo* *Note:* This expression is for casual use only among peers.	
1.8 Gratitude		
on having received a present; on returning a borrowed item	*arigatoo gozaimashita*	
on having received a present	*NP, arigatoo gozaimashita*	*Shashin, doomo arigatoo gozaimashita.*
on having received a favor *Note:* Students should recognize circumstances in which a person is expected to express gratitude.	*(V-te) arigatoo* *(V-te) arigatoo gozaimashita*	*Nooto o misete moratte, arigatoo. (Tasukatta yo.)* *Kono aida nosete kudasatte, arigatoo gozaimashita.*

responding to expressions of gratitude	*iie* *doo itashimashite*	A: *Shashin, doomo arigatoo gozaimashita.* B: *Iie, doo itashimashite.*
expressing reciprocal appreciation for favors	*kochira koso*	A: *Kinoo wa, doomo arigatoo gozaimashita.* B: *Iie, kochira koso.*

1.9 Apologizing

apologizing in anticipation of a violation that is about to occur, or as the violation occurs *Note:* Circumstances in which apology is expected may differ significantly from English.	*(doomo) sumimasen*	S: *Sumimasen. Wakarimasen deshita.*
	shitsurei shimasu	
	V-te sumimasen	*Osoku natte sumimasen.*
	ADJ-te sumimasen	*Omokute sumimasen.*
	NP de sumimasen	A: *Eigo de sumimasen.* B: *Ieie, ii desu yo.*
apologizing after a violation has occurred, or after it has been rectified	*(doomo) sumimasen deshita*	
	(doomo) shitsurei shimashita	
	gomen (nasai) (in this sense, use only with peers)	
	V-te sumimasen deshita	*Osoku natte sumimasen deshita.*

1.10 Granting forgiveness

in response to an apology	*iie*	A: *Sumimasen deshita.* B: *Iie.*
	ii desu yo	
reassuring after an apology	*iie, daijoobu desu yo*	A: *Doomo sumimasen.* B: *Iie, daijoobu desu yo.*
	iie, kamaimasen yo	A: *Osoku natte sumimasen.* B: *Iie, kamaimasen yo.*

1.11 Complimenting

expressing compliments	[no specific patterns]	*Ojoozu desu ne.*
declining compliments and praise, when these relate to a personal attribute	*ie* *sonna koto nai desu*	A: *Nihongo ga ojoozu desu ne.* B: *Ie, sonna koto nai desu.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
1.12 Approval and disapproval		
expressing approval	*ii desu yo* *yokatta desu yo*	
expressing disapproval	*komarimasu (nee)* *komarimashita (nee)* *dame desu yo*	A: *Dame desu nee.* B: *Ee, komarimashita nee.* A: *Dame desu yo.* B: *Doomo sumimasen.*
1.13 Miscellaneous		
expressing concern about health to a person who is not feeling well	*(doozo) odaiji ni* (when parting)	A: *Ja, ashita mata.* B: *Odaiji ni.*
expressing compassion	*taihen desu nee*	
expressing sympathy at lack of success	*zannen desu nee*	
expressing encouragement	*ganbatte kudasai.*	

2. GETTING THINGS DONE

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
2.1 Requests		
requesting objects	*X o onegai shimasu*	A: *Dore ga ii desu ka.* B: *Ja, sono ookii no o onegai shimasu.* A: *Doozo.*
	onegai shimasu (with culturally-appropriate open-handed pointing at the object requested)	A (pointing): *Onegai shimasu.* B: *A, kore desu ka. Hai, doozo. Kore (o) kudasai.*
requesting objects	*X o kudasai*	*Motto ookii no o kudasai.*
	[quantity] kudasai	*Oosaka made, nimai kudasai.*

requesting that someone perform an action, where the action is understood from the context (see also accepting offers)	*onegai shimasu* *onegai dekimasu ka*	A: *Mado o akemashoo ka.* B: *A, onegai shimasu.* A: *Chizu, kakimashoo ka.* B: *Sumimasen. Onegai shimasu.* A: *Kono nimotsu, onegai dekimasu ka.* B: *Ii desu yo.*
requesting performance of an action, referring specifically to the intended action (see "2.5 Giving instructions")	*V-te kudasaimasen ka*	*Sumimasen. Onamae o koko ni kaite kudasaimasen ka.* *Anoo, sumimasen. Shashin o totte kudasaimasen ka.*
requesting repetition of what the speaker has just said	*moo ichido onegai shimasu* *Note:* Students should use the full phrase only.	*Sumimasen, moo ichido onegai shimasu.*
	moo ichido osshatte kudasaimasen ka. (appropriate for addressing teachers)	*Sumimasen, moo ichido osshatte kudasaimasen ka.*

Note: Although the phrase *moo ichido (itte kudasai)* is appropriate as a teacher's instruction to the student, it may be inappropriately emulated by the student in either talking to the teacher or other adults. For this reason, *moo ichido onegai shimasu* is recommended for classroom use.

politely prefacing requests with an apology (attention-getting)	*sumimasen (kedo/ ga...)*	*Anoo...sumimasen kedo, sore o totte kudasaimasen ka.*
prefacing requests with an explanation	*[...S] n desu kedo/ga*	*Sumimasen. Minna de shashin o toritai n desu kedo, totte kudasaimasen ka.* *Sumimasen. Yoshida-san ni tegami o kakitai n desu kedo, juusho o oshiete kudasaimasen ka.*
politely declining requests	*chotto...*	*Sumimasen kedo/ga, kyoo wa chotto...*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
politely declining requests by using a diversion strategy	[no specific patterns]	*Warui desu kedo, ashita de mo ii desu ka.* *Sumimasen. Chotto wakaranai no de, Rezurii-san ni kiite mite kudasaimasen ka.*
granting requests	*hai* *ii desu yo*	A: *Sumimasen kedo, shashin o totte kudasaimasen ka.* B: *Hai, ii desu yo. Doko kara torimashoo ka.* A: *Sumimasen kedo, Tanaka-san ni denwa shitai n desu kedo, denwa bangoo o oshiete kudasaimasen ka.* B: *Ii desu yo. Kami arimasu ka.*
2.2 Invitations		
issuing invitations *Note*: The English 'Would you like to …?' strategy does not transfer: *ikitai desu ka* is not an invitation	*V-masen ka*	*Ashita uchi ni kimasen ka.* *Irasshaimasen ka.*
	V-nai	*Eiga ni ikanai?* *Tabenai?*
accepting invitations to take part in an activity	*ii desu ne* *ii ne*	*Eiga desu ka. Ii desu ne!*
politely checking that an invitation is valid	*ii desu ka* *ii*	A: *Howaito-san mo ikimasen ka.* B: *Ii desu ka.*
declining invitations *Note*: Students must be able to decline invitations without causing offence.	*chotto…* *Arigatoo gozaimasu. De mo…*	*Kyoo wa chotto…* *Arigatoo gozaimasu. Demo, ashita wa chotto…*

2.3 Making suggestions

asking if a course of action that includes the speaker is acceptable	*V-mashoo ka* *V-(y)oo ka*	A: *Basu de ikimashoo ka.* B: *Soo shimashoo.* A: *Ashita ikoo ka.* B: *Soo shiyoo.*
proposing a course of action that includes the speaker	*V-mashoo* *V-(y)oo*	*Sugu tabemashoo.*
suggesting a course of action that does not include the speaker	*V-tara doo/ikaga desu ka*	*Amutrakku de ittara doo desu ka.* *Koo shitara doo desu ka.*
	V-tara? (casual)	*Ashita ni shitara?*
indicating the best course of action (offering advice)	*[...S] hoo ga* ADJ *(desu)/*ADJ-NOUN *da*	*Ima iwanai hoo ga ii desu yo.* *Basu de itta hoo ga hayai desu yo.*
suggesting a date, food, etc.	*NP wa doo/ikaga desu ka*	*Nichiyoobi wa ikaga desu ka.* *Ashita wa doo?*
indicating a better alternative	*NP no hoo ga* ADJ *NP no hoo ga* ADJ-NOUN	*Basu no hoo ga hayai n desu.* *Takushii no hoo ga benri na n desu yo.* *Kore no hoo ga kirei desu yo.*
agreeing to a suggestion	*soo shimashoo* *soo shiyoo* *ii desu ne!*	A: *Chuuka ni shimashoo ka.* B: *Ee, soo shimashoo!* A: *Chuuka wa doo desu ka.* B: *A, ii desu ne!*
disagreeing with a suggestion or proposal	*X wa chotto...*	A: *Nichiyoobi wa doo desu ka.* B: *Soo desu nee. Nichiyoobi wa chotto...*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
2.4 Expressing decisions		
indicating that a given date, time, item, etc. is best	*X ga ii desu*	*Watashi, doyoobi ga ii desu.* A: *Nan ni shimasu ka.* B: *Tonkatsu-teishoku ga ii desu.*
indicating that a given date, time, item, etc. is satisfactory, but not necessarily ideal	*X de ii desu*	*Doyoobi de ii desu.* *Tonkatsu-teishoku de ii desu ka.*
making choices; setting dates, times, etc.	*X o Y ni suru*	*Asatte ni shimashoo.* *Watashi, A-teishoku ni shimasu.* *Ashita ni shimashita.*
expressing decisions that have been made and are beyond one's control	*X ga Y ni narimashita*	*Shiai ga ashita ni narimashita.*
2.5 Giving instructions		
polite instructions to do things	*V-te kudasai*	*Koko ni kaite kudasai.* *Kore o tsukatte kudasai.* *Soko ni oite kudasai.*
polite instructions not to do things	@ *V-naide kudasai*	*Abunai desu kara, hairanaide kudasai.*
complying with instructions	*hai* @ *kashikomarimashita* (store personnel)	A: *Kore to onaji no o onegai shimasu* B: *Kashikomarimashita.*
2.6 Permission		
seeking permission to do something (where the activity is obvious from the context)	*ii desu ka*	A: (pointing at the vacant computer) *Ii desu ka.* B: *Doozo, tsukatte kudasai.*
seeking permission, where permission is expected	*V-te ii desu ka*	*Chotto mite ii desu ka.* *Kore, tabete ii desu ka.*

seeking permission, with no expectation that permission will be granted	*V-te mo ii desu ka*	
granting permission to do things	*ii desu yo*	*Ee, ii desu yo. Doozo.*
granting permission using an invitation strategy	*V-te (mo) ii desu yo*	*Tsukatte ii desu yo.*
	V-te kudasai	*Doozo, tsukatte kudasai.*
withholding permission by using strategies of indirection	*chotto…* *sumimasen kedo…*	A: *Kore, ii desu ka.* B: *Iya, sore wa chotto… Kochira no o tsukatte kudasai.*
2.7 Prohibition		
Explicit prohibition	*V-cha/V-te wa ikemasen*	*Haitcha ikemasen.*
2.8 Offering assistance		
offering assistance	*V-mashoo ka*	*Kakimashoo ka.*
		Watashi ga mochimashoo ka
accepting assistance	*doomo sumimasen* *onegai shimasu*	A: *Watashi ga mochimashoo ka.* B: *Ii desu ka. Ja, onegai shimasu.*
declining assistance	*iie* *daijoobu da*	A: *Mochimashoo ka.* B: *Iie, daijoobu desu yo.*

3. COMMUNICATING FACTUAL INFORMATION

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
3.1 Declarative information		
3.1.1 Identifying things		
identifying persons, objects, etc. that are or have been in the field identifying persons,	*NP desu*	*Tanaka-san desu.* *Kore desu.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
objects, etc. that are or have been in the field of view or referred to in the discourse	*NP deshita*	*Purezento deshita.*
	NP (da)	A: *Dore?* B: *Kore (da).*
	NP datta	*Yoshida-san kara no denwa datta.*
using deictic expressions (ko-so-a-do words) to pick out people and things	*kore, sore, are*	*Are desu.*
	kono NP, sono NP, ano NP (including *kono* ADJ *no, sono* ADJ *no*, etc.)	*Kore desu.* *Ano hito desu.* *Sono ookii no desu.*
especially in response to questions, specifying who performs an action, or experiences some state	FOCUS with particle *ga*	A: *Tanaka-san ga tsukutta n desu ka.* B: *Ee, Tanaka-san ga tsukutta n desu.*
especially in response to questions, specifying who or what is described or identified by the predicate	FOCUS with particle *ga*	A: *Kore ga kyoo no desu ka.* B: *Ee, sore ga kyoo no desu.* A: *Dore ga ¥2,000 desu ka.* B: *Kore desu. Kono ookii no ga ¥2000 desu.*
especially in response to questions, specifying who or what is affected by an action	FOCUS with particle *o*	A: *Nani o mita n desu ka.* B: *Jurashikku Paaku o mita n desu.*
3.1.2 Describing things		
describing people, objects, etc. in terms of their characteristics	ADJ *(desu)*	*Takai (desu).* *Yasukatta (desu).*
	[ADJ + NOUN NP]	*Takai jisho.* *Chiisai heya.*
	ADJ NOUN + COPULA	*Daijoobu desu.* *Dame datta.*

	[ADJ NOUN + *na* + NOUN NP]	*Kiree na koppu.*

3.1.3 Recounting events and states

declarative sentences with verbs relating to activities and accomplishments.	IMPERFECTIVE: *V-(r)u*	*Basu de ikimasu.* *Mainichi yomimasu.*
talking about events or activities that:		
• occur regularly	IMPERFECTIVE: *V-(r)u*	*Kayoobi to kin'yoobi wa karate no renshuu o shimasu.*
• will occur in the future		*Kore kara yomimasu.* *Ashita kaerimasu*
talking about events or activities that did occur	PERFECTIVE: *V-ta*	*Sore kara, basu de Shinjuku made ikimashita.*
talking about events or activities that are or were occurring	PROGRESSIVE: *V-te iru/V-te'ru* *V-te ita/V-te'ta*	*Yonde imasu.* *Yonde'masu.* *Tegami (o) kaite imashita.*
talking about inherent states	Verbs relating to:	
	existence: *aru/ nai, iru,* @ *irassharu*	*Neko ga iru.*
	need: *iru*	*Moo sukoshi ookii no ga irimasu ne.*
	understanding: *wakaru*	*Nihon-go, wakarimasu ka.*
talking about states that have arisen out of the realization of some action	*V-te iru/V-te'ru*	*Kekkon shite imasu.* *Kanae desu ka. Ima chotto dete'masu kedo...*('Kanae? She's gone out for a while.') *Moo kite'masu yo.* ('She's here already.')

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
3.1.4 Explanation		
presenting facts by way of explanation of some contextually available state of affairs (see also "4. Communicating opinions and intellectual attitudes")	*[......S] n da* *Note:* Not to be used as a strategy for making direct style speech distal style.	*Ikitakatta n desu kedo, okane ga nakatta n desu.* A: *Kawanakatta n desu ka.* B: *Ee, takakatta n desu.*
3.1.5 Reported speech		
talking about what someone said or asked (reported speech)	*[...S] to iu*	*Ashita kuru to iimashita.* *Yoshida-san ga katte kuru to itta n da kedo...*
	[...S] ka (to) kiku	*Dare ga kuru ka kiita?*
3.2 Denial		
3.2.1 Negation		
simple denial	simple expressions of denial: *Iie, iya, ieie, nn*	*Amerika no kuruma ja nai desu.*
denying that an identification or description is correct, or that an activity did or will occur, etc.	negative forms: *NP ja nai (desu), NP ja nakatta (desu), etc*	*Sore ja nakatta desu kedo...*
	ADJ-ku nai desu/ADJ-ku arimasen	*Ookiku nai desu.*
	ADJ-ku nakatta (desu)/ADJ-ku arimasen deshita	*Takaku nakatta desu.*
	ADJ NOUN ja nai (desu)/ADJ NOUN ja arimasen	*Amari kiree ja nai desu kedo, doozo tsukatte kudasai.*
	ADJ NOUN ja nakatta desu/ADJ NOUN ja arimasen deshita	*Tsukatte mita kedo, amari benri ja nakatta desu.*

	V-masen, V-masen deshita, V-nai, V-nakatta	*Nomimasen.* *Tsukaimasen deshita.* *Ikanai.* *Minakatta.*

3.2.2 Correction

correcting erroneous information, assumptions, etc. by identifying the correct item	*chigaimasu*	A: *Kore desu ka.* B: *Iya, chigaimasu. Migi no hoo desu.*
	sentence particle *yo* (chiefly with affirmative predicate)	A: *Ashita ikimasen ne?* B: *Iya, ikimasu yo.*
	particles *ga* and *o*	*Iya, sore ja nai desu. Ookii no o onegai shimasu.* *Iie, Yoshida-san ja nakatta desu. Tanaka-san ga kakimashita.*

Note on strategies for correcting others: These correction strategies should be limited in distal-style speech to contexts where the nature of the correction is such that little loss of face will be incurred by the hearer. Otherwise, students should use non-confrontational correction strategies involving indirection and suggestion. See "4. Communicating opinions and intellectual attitudes" for further information. Direct style speech, especially among young persons, however, permits more directness.

3.3 Asking about factual information

3.3.1 Yes/no questions

questions for which a simple response is required	simple sentences with particle *ka* (distal style) or question intonation (direct style)	*Tanaka-san desu ka.* *Kinoo datta?* *Kono koppu, kiree desu ka.* *Tanaka-san no sushi, tabete mimashita ka.* *Kusuri, nonda?*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
3.3.2 Asking about identity		
asking about the identity of an item, person, etc.:		
• with focus on the subject	*NP ga* PRED *(ka)*	*Tanaka-san ga kimashita ka.* *Kore ga atarashii desu ka.*
• with focus on the object	*NP o* PRED *(ka)*	*Ii no o kaimashita ka.*
• with focus on other phrase	*NP de* PRED *(ka)*	*Basu de kimashita ka.*
• using interrogative words (see "Appendix D: Concepts" for further examples)	Simple questions using interrogative words and the copula, e.g., *nan desu ka, dare desu ka, nannichi desu ka, itsu desu ka*	*Sore, nan desu ka.* *Kyoo, nan-nichi desu ka.* *Ashita no eiga, nanji?*
	Simple questions using interrogative words, e.g., *dare ga...(ka), nani o...(ka), nannichi ni...(ka), itsu...(ka)*	*Dare ga kimasu ka.* *Nani o yomimashita ka.* *Dare ni aimasu ka.* *Itsu kaetta?*
3.3.3 Modal questions		
using uncertainty strategies to ask polite questions of fact	*[...(question word) ...S] deshoo ka*	*Sumimasen. Tearai wa dochira deshoo ka.*

4. COMMUNICATING OPINIONS AND INTELLECTUAL ATTITUDES

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
4.1 Affirmation, agreement		
affirming another speaker's presuppositions, in response to questions	*ee* or *hai* followed by a short affirmative sentence	A: *Kinoo ikimashita ka.* B: *Ee, ikimashita.* A: *Basu de kita n desu ka.* B: *Ee, basu deshita.*

		A: *Ashita made ni dekimasu ka.* B: *Hai, dekimasu.*
	ee or *hai* followed by a short negative sentence *Note:* The response affirms the first speaker's presuppositions.	A: *Muzukashii?* B: *Nn. Hotondo wakaranai.* A: *Kinoo wa Tanaka-san kimasen deshita ne?* B: *Ee, kimasen deshita.*
	soo desu	*Ee, soo desu (yo).* *Ee, soo na n desu (yo).*
expressing the expectation that the hearer will agree, and responding appropriately when presented with such expectations	sentence particle *nee* (with lengthening)	A: *Ii desu nee.* B: *Ee, soo desu nee.* A: *Oishii desu nee.* B: *Ee, soo desu nee.*
checking the assumption that the hearer shares the same information or presuppositions	sentence particle *ne?*	*Dekimasu ne?* *Kore de ii desu ne?*

4.2 Disagreement

Note: Students must be trained in socially appropriate ways of expressing disagreement		
disagreeing with the other speaker's assumptions	*iie* or *iya* followed by a short negative sentence	A: *Kinoo ikimashita ka.* B: *Iie, ikimasen deshita.* A: *Wakarimashita ka.* B: *Iie, hotondo wakarimasen deshita.*
	iie or *iya* followed by a short affirmative sentence *Note:* The answers disagree with the first speakers' presuppositions.	A: *Muzukashiku nakatta desu ka.* B: *Iya, kantan deshita yo.* A: *Kinoo kimasen deshita ne?* B: *Iie, kimashita yo.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
politely declining compliments relating to personal attributes (expressing modesty)	*iie* *ieie*	A: *Nihongo, ojoozu desu nee.* B: *Ieie.*
indirectly disagreeing, using a strategy of postponing the response	*soo desu nee…* *soo (da) nee…*	A: *Ii deshoo?* B: *Soo desu nee…* A: *Kore de ii daroo?* B: *Soo (da) nee…*
expressing skepticism	*soo desu ka* *soo*	A: *Kore desu yo.* B: *Soo desu ka.*
disagreeing, politely, suggesting the correct answer	negative questions *Note:* Recommended as a strategy for expressing polite disagreement.	A: *Yamada-sensei deshita ne?* B: *Soo desu ka. Ima no wa, Tanaka-sensei ja nakatta desu ka.*
direct disagreement *Note:* To be used with caution in distal style contexts	*chigaimasu*	A: *Itsu desu ka. Kyoo desu ka.* B: *Iya, chigaimasu. Ashita desu yo.*
4.3 Knowledge		
lack of knowledge or information	*saa…*	*Saa, chotto wakarimasen nee.*
knowledge of some entity	*(X-ga Y-o) shitte iru* *(y wa) shiranai* *Note:* As a one-word answer, *siranai* is commonly interpreted as an uncooperative response.	A: *Ueda Yoshihiko-san (o) shitte'masu ka.* B: *Iya, shirimasen.*
lack of knowledge about some state of affairs	*[……S] ka doo ka wakaranai/shiranai*	A: *Ashita kuru deshoo ka.* B: *Saa, kuru ka doo ka wakarimasen nee.*
commitment to memory	*oboeru* *oboete iru*	T: *Kyoo no pataan, yoku oboete kudasai.* S: *Wakarimashita.*
forgetfulness	*X-ga Y-o wasureru*	*Kaban o densha ni wasureta n desu kedo…*

	[……S] ka doo ka wasureru	*Shukudai ga ashita made ka doo ka, wasuremashita.*
expressing that one has recalled something previously forgotten	*(X-ga Y-o) omoidasu*	*A! Omoidashimashita!*
Recall of information	PERFECTIVE forms of the copula	*A! Kinoo datta ne!* *Ashita wa Tanaka-sensei deshita ne!*

4.4 Certainty and uncertainty

expressing strong certainty about the information	sentence particle *yo*	*Ee, kinoo kimashita yo.* A: *Daijoobu desu ka.* B: *Ee, daijoobu desu yo.*
indicating an entity with respect to which one can make an assertion when one has only partial knowledge or information	particle *wa* (often matched by *kedo…* at the end of the sentence)	A: *Minna kimashita ka.* B: *Soo desu nee. Tanaka-san wa kimashita kedo…* A: *Chuugokugo mo Kankokugo mo dekimasu ka.* B: *Tanaka-san desu ka. Soo desu nee. Kankokugo-wa dekimasu kedo…*
indicating that one thinks that something is the case	*[…S] to omou*	*Kyoo kuru to omoimasu kedo…*
indicating that one thinks that something might be the case	*[…S] n ja nai ka to omou*	*Kyoo kuru n ja nai ka to omoimasu kedo…*
expressing moderately strong probability	*kitto*	*Kitto kuru deshoo.* *Kitto kuru to omoimasu.*
expressing moderately weak certainty	*[…S] deshoo* *[…S] daroo*	*Ashita kuru deshoo.*
expressing possibility	*[…S] ka mo shirenai*	*Ashita kuru ka mo shiremasen.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
4.5 Opinion		
expressing opinions, when the speaker is uncertain or feels there is potential for disagreement with the hearer	negative questions *Note:* These mean that the speaker is of the opinion that X is the case.	*Ebi ja nai desu ka.* *Chotto takaku nai desu ka.* *Tanaka-san no tanjoobi desu ka. Ashita ja nakatta desu ka.* *Ashita kuru n ja nai n desu ka.*
4.6 Explanation		
explanation of some contextually-available state of affairs *Note:* Care will be needed with respect to male and female speech (see "6. Modulating interpersonal relations")	*[......S] n desu* *Note:* The *[......S] n desu* pattern is not a strategy for making direct style speech distal style.	*Ikitakatta n desu kedo, okane ga nakatta n desu.*
	[......S] n da (direct style: blunt)	A: *Kawanakatta n desu ka.* B: *Ee, takakatta n desu.* *Sugoku kiree na n da yo.* *Itte mita n da kedo, inakatta.*
	[......S] no (direct style: gentle)	*Takai no Ø.* *Inakatta no.* *Itta no?*
4.7 Intentions		
intention to perform some action	*V-(y)oo to omotte iru*	*Kotoshi no natsuyasumi wa Nihon ni ikoo to omotte imasu.*
expressing one's plan to perform some action	*V-(r)u tsumori da*	*Rainen Nihon ni iku tsumori desu.*
current intention	*V-(y)oo to omou*	

5. COMMUNICATING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
5.1 Empathy		
indicating empathy with hearer's situation or perception of how things stand	sentence particle *nee*... [with drawn out intonation]	A: *Dame deshita ka.* B: *Komarimashita nee...*
indicating the expectation that the hearer will understand or empathize with one's own situation or perception of how things stand	sentence particle *nee*... [with drawn out intonation]	*Saa, wakarimasen nee...* *Amari yoku nai desu nee.*
emphatic empathy with hearer	sentence particle *ne*	*Yokatta desu ne!* *Dekimashita ne!*
5.2 Pleasure, liking		
liking for, satisfaction with an object; pleasure at something	*(X wa) ii desu nee*	*Ano e, ii desu nee.*
liking for a person (only prenominal forms)	*ii X da*	*Ii hito desu nee...*
	totemo ii X da (also other adjectives, e.g., *yasashii*)	*Totemo ii hito desu yo.*
generic liking for an object or type of object	*X ga suki da* *Note:* Avoid use in reference to personally known individuals: connotations of "love."	*Tenisu ga suki desu kedo...* *Nihon no anime ga suki da.*
5.3 Displeasure, dislike		
displeasure (at performance), dislike of some specific object	*(amari) yoku nai*	*Soo desu nee... Amari yoku nai desu nee...*
dislike, of things and people	*(amari) suki ja nai*	A: *Kirai desu ka.* B: *Maa, amari suki ja nai desu nee...*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
dislike of things through indirection	*amari V-masen*	*Niku desu ka. Niku wa amari tabemasen.* *Jazu desu ka. Amari kikimasen.*
strong generic dislike	*(X ga) kirai da/kirai na NP* *(X ga) dai-kirai da*	*Ano hito, dai-kirai!*
strong dislike, displeasure, disgust	*(X ga) iya da/iya na NP*	*Iya da!*
dislike of taste	*(amari) oishiku nai*	*Ee, amari oishiku nakatta desu nee…*
	mazui	*Ano mise no raamen, mazukatta desu nee…*
5.4 Preference		
preference among many possible items (typically in specific instances)	*X ga ii* *(X to Y to Z to) dore ga ii desu ka*	*Watashi wa shoogayaki ga ii desu.*
generic preference among many possible items	*X ga suki da* *(X to Y to Z to) dore ga suki desu ka*	A: *Supootsu wa donna no ga suki desu ka.* B: *Supootsu desu ka. Soo desu nee… Watashi wa tenisu ga suki desu kedo…*
preference between two alternatives (in specfic instances)	*X no hoo ga ii*	*Washoku bentoo no hoo ga ii ja nai desu ka.*
	dochira/dotchi *(X to Y to,) dotchi (no hoo) ga ii desu ka*	*Kono akai no to sono buruu no to, dotchi ga ii desu ka.*
generic preference between two alternatives	*X no hoo ga suki da* *dochira/dotchi* *(X to Y to,) dotchi (no hoo) ga suki desu ka*	*Nihonshoku to yooshoku to, dotchi no hoo ga suki desu ka*

5.5 Satisfaction and dissatisfaction

satisfaction with an item	*choodo ii desu*	*Aa, choodo ii desu nee…*
satisfaction, with some possible reservations	*NP de ii desu*	*Kore de ii desu ka.*
expressing dissatis-faction, by indirection	*chotto…*	A: *Kore de ii desu ka.* B: *Iya, sore wa chotto…*
dissatisfaction	*amari yoku nai*	*Kono kopii, amari yoku nai desu kedo…*

5.6 Disappointment

disappointment that some event did not take place	*V-nakute zannen da*	*Kinoo ikenakute, zannen deshita.*
disappointment at a state of affairs	*ADJ-kute zannen da*	*Amari oishiku nakute zannen deshita nee.*
	N de/ja nakute zannen da	*Sushi ja nakute zannen desu.*
	N ga nakute zannen da	*Sushi ga nakute zannen desu.*

5.7 Interest

indicating that an item or object is interesting	*omoshiro-i*	*Kono bangumi, nakanaka omoshiroi desu yo.*

5.8 Wishes

desire to perform some activity	*(X-ga Y-ga/o) V-tai desu* *Note:* Interrogative forms are interpreted as questions of fact, not invitations.	*Osushi ga tabetai desu.* *Tanaka-san wa nani ga iitakatta n desyoo ka.*
wish to undertake some course of action at some point in the future	*V-tai to omoimasu*	
	V-tai to omotte imasu	*Kotoshi no shichigatsu ni Nihon ni ikitai to omotte imasu.*

6. MODULATING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
6.1 Expressing interpersonal distance		
Using distal (*desu/-masu*) style forms to indicate that the speaker is maintaining a courteous social distance from the hearer	*V-masu/-mashita/-ma-sen/-masen deshita*, etc.	*Kinoo mimashita.*
	AJD-i desu/-katta desu/ -ku nai desu/-ku nakatta desu, etc.	*Omoshirokatta desu ka.*
	ADJ-NOUN desu/ deshita/ja nai desu/ja nakatta desu, etc.	*Amari benri ja nai desu nee.*
	NP desu/deshita/ja nai desu/ja nakatta desu, etc.	*Tanaka-san ja nai desu.*
	questions using the above and particle *ka*	*Itu iku n desu ka.*
6.2 Expressing interpersonal closeness		
using direct (plain, informal) style forms to indicate that the speaker is socially and psychologically close to the hearer *Note:* Students should not use these forms in classroom discourse involving the teacher.	*V-(r)u/-ta/-nai/-nakatta*, etc.	*Kinoo mita.* *Kyoo ikanai?* *Tabeta?* *Kore, tsukatte mita kedo, yoku nakatta.*
	AJD-i -katta/-ku nai/-ku nakatta, etc.	*Chiisai?* *Omoshiroi!* *Muzukashikatta yo.*
	ADJ-NOUN Ø/da/ datta/ja nai /ja nakatta, etc.	*Amari kirei ja nai nee.*
distinguishing gender by grammatical choice *Note:* In direct style, students will need to avoid gender mismatches.	*NP Ø/da/ datta/ja nai /ja nakatta*, etc.	*Tanaka-san ja nakatta.*
	blunt style (chiefly male): *NP da/ ADJ-NOUN da*	*Tegami da.* *Dame da.*

Males need to be apprised that gentle style, in which da is omitted is associated primarily with female speech, and should be discouraged from using that style. Females should be trained to use both styles, but must be aware of the social impact of a more aggressive style.	gentle style (chiefly female): *NP Ø*/ ADJ-NOUN Ø	*Tegami.* *Dame.* M: *Dame da yo.* F: *Dame Ø yo.* M: *Tanaka-san da yo.* F: *Tanaka-san Ø yo.* M: *Daijoobu da ne?* F: *Daijoobu Ø ne?*
	questions with rising intonation (not using *ka*)	*Kore, oishii?* *Dame?* *Ashita mo kuru?*
	questions using *no* (gentle style)	*Itsu iku no?* *Sensei na no?* *Sensei no na no?* *Kore, kirei na no?*

6.3 Expressing honorific politeness

politeness with respect to the hearer *Note:* For advanced (third-year +) students	*V-(r)aremasu* *Note:* This form is recommended as most appropriate to young people.	*Nanji goro kaeraremasu ka.*
	Special honorific verbs: *irasshaimasu < iru, iku, kuru* *ossyaimasu < iu*	
honorific reference to *people* associated with the hearer	*otoosan, okaasan,* *ojiisan, obaasan* *oniisan, oneesan* *otomodachi*	
honorific reference to *things* or *states* associated with the hearer	honorific prefix *o*-NOUN	*Odenwa desu.* *Oyasumi desu ka.* *Otegami o itadakimashita.*
	honorific prefix *go*- NOUN	*Gobyooki desu.*

7. MANAGING DISCOURSE

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
7.1 Opening and maintaining communication		
indicating intent to initiate communication (getting the hearer's attention)	|*anoo*| (especially where the speaker does not know the addressee's name)	|*anoo*| *sumimasen kedo, kono hen ni wa yuubinkyoku ga arimasu ka.*
	use of names	A: *Tanaka-san.* B: *Hai, nan desu ka.*
indicating intent to initiate question or request	*(chotto) sumimasen kedo* *chotto ii desu ka*	A: *Sumimasen kedo, sono ookii no chotto totte kudasai.* A: *Chotto ii desu ka.* B: *Hai, nan desyoo ka.* A: *Asita no koto nan desu kedo…watashi mo dete ii deshoo ka.*
interrupting in order to initiate a request or discussion	*chotto yoroshii desu ka*	
holding communication channel open until a response or statement can be formulated	|*eeto*| |*anoo*| *Note:* Students should not use the English "umm." Too many |*anoo*|'s, on the other hand, are also disturbing.	A: *Tanaka-san, imasu ka* B: *Tanaka-san desu ka.* |*eeto*| *Tanaka-san wa ima dekakete imasu kedo…* *Kore wa,* |*anoo*| *Nihon ni itta toki ni* |*anoo*| *tomodachi ni moratta n desu.*
holding communication channel open while indicating uncertainty or that a response requires thought	*soo desu nee…*	A: *Ashita wa ikaga desu ka.* B: *Soo desu nee…Ashita wa chotto…*

		A: *Kono shashin, wakarimasu ka.* B: *Soo desu nee… Shiatoru ja nai desu ka.*

7.2 Indicating receipt of information

non-committal receipt of information (indicating that one has heard, not that one assents)	*hai, ee* (without further elaboration) (also, nodding, with or without verbal accompaniment)	A: *Ashita, Sendai ni ikitai n desu kedo…* B: *Hai.* A: *Ii deshoo ka.* B: *Ashita desu ka. Chotto komarimasu kedo…*
indicating interested receipt of new information	*soo desu ka* (with falling intonation)	A: *Kinoo, Murata-san ni aimashita.* B: *Soo desu ka.* ↘ A: *Totemo ii hito desu.*
indicating skeptical receipt of new information	*soo desu ka* (with rising intonation)	A: *Are! Tanaka-san desu yo.* B: *Soo desu ka.* ↗ *Masuda-san ja nai desu ka.*

7.3 Topic-related functions

7.3.1 Introducing referent as topic of discourse

introducing a brand new topic *Note:* The speaker makes no presupposition that the referent is already on the hearer's mind referent as topic	*NP Ø PRED* *Note:* Ø (no particle) is used here, usually with a slight pause	*Sore, nan desu ka.* *Tanaka-san, nanji ni kuru n desu ka.* *Boku no nooto, kono hen ni oita n da kedo, minakatta?*
reticently introducing a topic, often as a prelude to a request or question	*NP na n desu kedo* *NP no koto na n desu kedo…*	*Ashita no tenisu na n desu kedo, itte ii desu ka.* *Hikooki no koto na n desu ga, kippu wa doko de kaeru deshoo ka.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
introducing a referent that is presumed already to be in the mind of the hearer (contextually accessible)	*NP wa* PRED	A: *Ashita, Nihon ni iku n desu yo.* B: *Soo desu ka. Ashita desu ka. Hikooki wa nanji ni deru n desu ka.* A: *Atarashii jisho, kaimashita. Yasukatta desu yo.* B: *Soo desu ka. Hon'ya wa doko deshita ka.* *Kinoo no shinbun wa doko ni okimashita ka.*
7.3.2 Restricting the referent		
limiting the applicability of the predicate to a referent about which the speaker is willing to commit him/herself (contrastive *wa*)	*NP wa* PRED	A: *Kinoo, minna kimashita ka.* B: *Soo desu nee… Tanaka-kun wa kimashita kedo…* A: *Koohii, yoku nomimasu ka.* B: *Koohii desu ka. Iya, koohii wa amari nomimasen.* A: *Ashita, shiken da ne!* B: *Ee, benkyoo wa daijoobu na no.*
7.3.3 Changing the referent		
Asking the same question about a new referent	*NP wa?*	A: *Koohii, yoku nomimasu ka.* B: *Koohii desu ka. Iya, koohii wa amari nominasen.* A: *Ja, koocha wa?* B: *Koocha mo amari nomanai n desu.* A: *Sukii, yoku simasu ka.* B: *Watashi desu ka. Ee, yoku shimasu yo. Tanaka-san wa?*

7.3.4 Keeping track of the referent

asking if one has correctly identified the referent of the discourse	*NP desu ka* *Note:* This question does not necessarily require a response.	A: *Sore, chotto ii desu ka.* B: *Kono jisho desu ka. Doozo, doozo.*
checking one's belief that one has correctly identified the referent of the discourse	*NP desu ne?* *Note:* This question does not require a response.	A: *Sore, chotto ii desu ka.* B: *Kono jisyo desu ne? Doozo, doozo.*

7.4 Maintaining cohesion

7.4.1 With discourse connectives

drawing a conclusion from the preceding utterance or from the context	*ja(a)*	A: *Konban, hima na n desu kedo...* B: *Soo desu ka. Jaa, eiga ni ikimasen ka.*
conceding a point, then presenting conflicting information.	*de mo*	A: *Kyoo wa ikimasen?* B: *De mo, ashita wa iku desyoo?*
presenting two pieces of contrasting information	*de mo*	*Kyoo wa chotto dame desu. De mo, ashita wa ii desu yo.* *Takakatta. De mo omoshirokatta.*

7.4.2 Using deixis

reference to what the other person has just said	*sono NP/sore/sonna*	*Sonna ni muzukashikatta n desu ka.*
reference to something that is known to both speaker and hearer	*ano NP/are/anna NP* (*anna NP* is commonly pejorative)	A: *Kono aida no jikoku-hyoo, doko deshoo ka.* B: *A. Are wa Tanaka-san ni ageta n desu.*
reference to what the speaker has just said or is about to say	*kono NP/kore/konna NP*	*Kono hanashi, hontoo desu yo.*

functions	essential patterns and phrases	examples
7.4.3 Sequencing information		
stating background information before main predicate	*S1 ga/kedo, S2*	*Shibuya ni ikitai n desu ga, densha wa nan-ban-sen deshoo ka.* *Nara mo mitai n desu ga, ii minshuku wa nai desu ka.*
giving reasons, manner expressions, etc., before main predicate	*[…-te*$_{S1}$*] S2*	*Ookikute, taberarenai n desu.* *Jiko de basu ga okureta n desu.* *Basu ni notte kaerimashita.* *Kirei de ii desu.*
presenting causes before effects	*S1 kara S2*	*Wakaranakatta kara, jisho de shirabemashita.*
presenting explanations before conclusions	*S1 no de S2*	*Tanaka-san ga konakatta no de, ashita ni narimashita.*
presenting events in sequential order	*[…-te*$_{S1}$*] S2* *[…-te*$_{S1}$*] kara S2*	*Toshokan ni itte shirabemashita.* *Gyuuniku o furaipan ni irete, yakimasu.* *Sensei to hanashite kara itta hoo ga ii ja nai desu ka.*

APPENDIX D

CONCEPTS

1. EXISTENTIAL CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
1.1 Existence, non-existence		
existence (availability) of inanimate objects	*(X ga) aru*	A: *Eiwa jiten (ga) arimasu ka.* B: *Eiwa desu ka.* Arimasu *yo.* *Ookii no mo chiisai* no mo *arimasu kedo…*
non-existence (unavailability) of inanimate objects	*(X ga) nai desu*	*Jikan ga nai desu.*
	(= (X ga) arimasen)	A: *Eiwa jiten (ga) arimasu ka.*
	@ gozaimasu, gozaimasen (shopkeeper talk)	B: *Hai, gozaimasu* yo.
of animate beings	*(X ga) iru* *@ irassharu*	A: *Kyoodai, imasu ka.* B: *Ee, otooto ga* hitori *imasu.*
1.2 Presence, absence		
of humans	*iru* *@ irassharu*	A: *Toshi-kun, imasu ka.* B: *Toshi-kun desu ka. Ima wa imasen* kedo…
be out, be away	*dete iru/dete'ru* *dekakete iru/ dekakete'ru*	A: *Toshi-kun, imasu ka.* B: *Ima, chotto dekakete'masu kedo…*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
1.3 Possibility and impossibility (ability)		
physical possibility or impossibility of doing something	*(X ga Y-ga/o) V-(ra)-reru* *Note:* Students will need to be informed of variation: Y *ga* is standard, Y *o* is increasingly common, especially among younger people.	*Kore, taberaremasu ka.* *Konpyuutaa ga tsukaenai n desu.* *Kuruma de wa ikenai n desu.* *Ji ga kitanakute, yomemasen nee.*
	dekiru/dekinai	A: *Daijoobu?* B: *Nn. Dekinai.*
ability as target of focus (new information)	*[......S] koto ga dekiru* (especially in questions)	A: *Nihongo o yomu koto ga dekimasu ka.* B: *Sukoshi wa dekimasu ga...*
(in)ability within a limited domain	*[......S] koto-wa dekiru/dekinai*	A: *Nihongo o yomu koto ga dekimasu ka.* B: *Yomu koto wa amari dekimasen kedo...*
contrasting ability to do one thing with inability to do another	*[......S] koto-wa dekiru*	*Nihongo desu ka. Hanasu koto wa sukoshi dekimasu kedo, yomu koto wa amari dekimasen.*
ability to do two or more things.	*([......S] koto-mo) [......S] koto-mo dekiru*	A: *Hiragana o yomu koto ga dekimasu ka.* B: *Yomu koto mo, kaku koto mo dekimasu.*
ability to communicate in a language.	*(X-ga) Y-go-ga) dekiru.*	*Chuugoku-go ga dekimasu ka.*
1.4 Occurrence		
of events (concerts, parties, exams, etc.), accidents	*(Y de) X ga aru*	*Kinoo, eki no mae de ooki na kaji ga arimashita.* *Ototoi jishin ga atta ne!* *Asita, uchi de paatii ga aru kedo, kimasen ka.*

1.5 Demonstration		
showing objects	*X o miseru*	*Motto ookii no o misete kudasai.* *Ima misemashoo ka.*

2. SPATIAL CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
2.1 Location		
using deictic locative words (*ko-so-a-do* words)	*koko, soko, asoko* *doko, dochira*	A: *Denwachoo, doko ni arimasu ka.* B: *Koko desu yo.*
identifying locations of objects and people using deictic prenominal forms	*kono NP, sono NP, ano NP, dono NP*	*Kono hen ni kooshuu denwa arimasu ka.* *Ano hito desu ne.*
identifying objects by location using deictic forms	*kore, sore, are, dore*	*Dore desu ka.* *Kore to are desu yo.*
locating objects or events in space	*NP desu*	A: *Tanaka-san no uchi wa dochira desu ka.* B: *Kono saki desu.* *Koko desu yo.* *Eki no chikaku desu ka.*
locating objects in space	*NP ni V*	A: *Tanaka-san no uchi wa doko desu ka.* B: *Kono saki ni arimasu.* A: *Jikoku-hyoo aru?* B: *Ee. Kaban ni haitte iru.*
locating events or activities in space	*NP de V*	*Koko de tabemashoo.* A: *Doko de kaimashita ka.* B: *Kono seetaa desu ka. Chikaku no suupaa de kaimashita.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
location through which motion takes place	*NP o V*	*Tugi no kado o magatte kudasai.* *Mainiti kono kooen o aruite imasu.*
2.2 Relative position		
relative position along the three dimensions	*(X no) ue, shita*	A: *Ue ni okimashoo ka.* B: *Iya, shita de ii desu*
	(X no) mae, usiro	*Eki no mae no ookii kissaten de machimashoo.*
	(X no) migi, hidari	*Yuubinkyoku wa migi no hoo ni arimasu.*
	(X no) naka, soto	
position alongside	*(X no) soba*	
	(X no) yoko	
	(X no) tonari	*Uchi wa gakkoo no tonari desu kara, sugu desu.*
position along a trajectory	*(X no) saki*	
	(X no) mukoo	*Kawa no mukoo ga Oregon desu.*
position between objects	*X to Y no aida*	*Shiatoru to Pootorando no aida desu.*
position relative to compass bearing	*higashi, nishi, minami, kita*	*Shiatoru no minami desu.*
2.3 Distance		
far (from)	*NP kara tooi*	*Eki kara tooi desu ka.*
	NP ni/kara chikai	
close (to)	*chikaku no X*	*Chikaku no suupaa de kaimashita.*
	X no chikaku ni	*Uchi no chikaku ni ooki na kooen ga aru kara, soko de renshuu shite imasu.*

2.4 Motion

motion away from speaker	*iku*	*Sinjuku no depaato ni itte mita kedo, onaji no ga nakatta.*
motion towards speaker	*(NP ni) kuru*	*Asita no niji ni uti ni kite kudasai.*
motion towards speaker after performing some action	*V-te kuru*	*Tabete kimashita.* *Kyoo no shukudai, yonde kimashita ka.*
return to base location near speaker after leaving to perform an action	*V-te kuru*	*Itte kimasu.* *Kippu o katte kimasu kara, matte'te kudasai.*
motion towards base/origin	*(NP ni) kaeru*	*Nanji ni kaette kimashoo ka.* *Kuji-han gurai ni kaette kimasu.*
motion inwards, motion outwards	*(NP ni) hairu*	*Sanbon haitte imasu.*
	(NP-o) deru	*Asa kuji gurai ni demasu kara, hachiji made ni okimasyoo.*
putting in or taking out of a container	*(X-o) (Y ni) ireru* *(X o) (Y kara) dasu*	*Gomi wa kono hako ni irete kudasai.*
arrival	*(NP ni) tsuku*	*Nanji goro Kyooto ni tsuku?*
departure	*(NP o) deru*	*Hikooki ga kuji ni Narita o demasu.*
	(NP kara) deru	*Ikebukuro-yuki wa nanban-sen kara demasu ka.*
cessation of motion	*(X-ga) tomaru*	*Densha ga tomatta!*
	(X ga) (Y o) tomeru	*Koko de tomete kudasai.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
2.5 Direction		
goal of motion	*NP ni* *NP e*	*Itsu Amerika ni kita n desu ka.* *Ashita chotto umi ni iku n da kedo, Toshi-kun mo ikanai?*
straight along	*massugu*	*Kono michi o massugu itte, ginkoo no kado o magatte kudasai.*
change of direction	*magaru*	*Tsugi no kado o migi ni magatte kudasai.*
point of arrival along trajectory	*NP made*	*Eki kara otaku made, aruite dono kurai kakarimasu ka.* *Chotto yuubinkyoku made itte kimasu.*

3. TEMPORAL CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
3.1 Point in time		
asking the time	*ima nanji desu ka* *Note:* Use of *ima* is idiomatic.	*Ima nanji desu ka.* *Ima, nanji (gurai) desu ka.* *Ima nanji (gurai) deshoo ka.* *Ima nanji?*
telling the time	*X-ji; X-fun* *X-ji da* *X-ji han da* *X-ji juugofun da* *X-ji Y-fun da*	*Niji han desu.* *Sanji nijuugofun desu.*

indicating the exact point in time an event takes place	*[absolute time word] ni*	*Yoji ni kite kudasai.* *Hachiji ni uchi o demashita.* *Doyoobi ni ikimashoo.* *Sen kyuuhyaku nanajuunen ni umaremasita.* *Sangatu ni Nihon ni iku no desu.*
indicating an approximate point in time that an event takes place	*X-ji gurai, X-ji goro (ni)*	*Kuji gurai desu yo.* *Mikka goro kimasu.* *Asatte gurai de ii desu.*
relative days	*ototoi, kinoo, kyoo, ashita, asatte* (no particle)	*Kinoo tsukimashita.* *Asatte iku n desu.*
absolute days	*nichiyoobi, getsuyoobi, kayoobi, suiyoobi, mokuyoobi, kinyoobi, doyoobi*	*Kayoobi ni ikimashita.* *Doyoobi de yokatta desu ne!*
groups of days	*doonichi, gessui-kin, kaamoku*, etc.	*Gessui wa suiei de, kaamoku wa kurarinetto desu.*
relative weeks	*konshuu, raishuu, saraishuu, senshuu, sensenshuu* (no particle)	*Senshuu ikimashita.*
relative months	*sensengetsu, sengetsu, kongetsu, raigetsu, saraigetsu*	*Raigetsu, Nyuu Yooku ni iku n desu.*
absolute months	*ichigatsu, nigatsu, sangatsu,..., juunigatsu*	*Hachigatsu ni ikimasu.*
relative years	*ototoshi, kyonen, kotoshi, rainen, sarainen*	*Kotoshi, Yooroppa ni ikitai to omotte imasu.*
absolute years	*(senkyuuhyaku) X-juu-X-nen*	*Senkyuuhyaku hachijuu nen ni umaremashita.*
	Meiji, Taishoo, Shoowa, Heisei	*Kotoshi, Heisei nannen deshita ka.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
3.2 Temporal ordering		
3.2.1 Priority		
prior realization (or non-realization)	PERFECTIVE forms	*Ikimashita.* *Nomimasen deshita.*
previous (non-) realization of activity, event, with relevance for present	*V-te iru/-te inai* *V-te'ru/-te'nai*	*Watashi, ano hon o yonde iru kara, watashi ga hanasimashoo.*
realization of event or state at some prior point in time	*moo*	*Moo tabemashita.* *Moo yonde imasu yo.*
existence of prior event	*[...V-ta] koto ga aru/nai*	*Nihon ni itta koto ga aru.*
3.2.2 Simultaneity		
event is ongoing at present	PROGRESSIVE use of *V-te iru/V-te'ru*	*Ima, tegami o kaite'masu.*
3.2.3 Posteriority		
event that will be realized in the future	IMPERFECTIVE forms	A: *Kore kara ikimasu ka.* B: *Ee, ikimasu.*
	kore kara	*Kore kara, nani o shimashoo.*
	ato de	*Sore, ato de shimashoo.*
	X *(ni)* + IMPERFECTIVE verb	*Doyoobi ni shimasu.* *Raishuu ikimasu.*
	kondo	*Kondo, ikimashoo.*
3.2.4 Sequence		
	tsugi ni *tsugi no NP*	*Chotto konde'masu nee. Tsugi no densya o machimashoo.*
	sore kara	*Gohan o tabemashita. Sore kara, toshokan ni ikimashita.*

3.2.5 Continuity

continues	*X o tsuzukeru*	*Daigaku de Nihongo no benkyoo o tsuzuketai to omoimasu.*
continued realization without completion	*mada*	*Mada tabete'masu.*
continued non-realization of event or state	*mada* + NEG	*Mada kite'nai.*

3.3 Length of time (duration)

interval of minutes	*ippun(kan), nihun(kan), sanpun(kan),...jippun (kan),..., sanjippun(kan)* (no particle)	*Sanjippun machimashita.*
interval of hours	*ichijikan, nijikan, sanjikan,..., nijuu-yojikan* (no particle)	*Nihongo o nijikan benkyoo shimashita.*
interval of days	*ichinichi, futsuka(kan), mikka(kan), ..., tooka(kan), juuichi-nichi* (no particle)	*Sanfuranshisuko de mikka tomatte, sore kara Pootorando ni ikimashita.*
interval of weeks	*isshuukan, nishuukan, sanshuukan,...* (no particle)	*Byooki de sanshuukan yasunda.*
interval of years	*ichinen(kan), ninen (kan), sannen(kan),..., juunen(kan)* (no particle)	*Kohen-san wa juunen gurai Nihon ni ita n desu.*

3.4 Frequency

habit	IMPERFECTIVE	A: *Koohii nomimasu ka.* B: *Ee, nomimasu*
	yoku	*Yoku ikimasu ne!*
infrequency	*amari...* NEG	*Terebi wa amari mimasen nee.*
	hotondo... NEG	*Tenisu wa hotondo shimasen.*
adverbs of frequency	*itsumo*	*Itsumo koshoo shite'masu.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
	tokidoki	*Terebi wa tokidoki miru n da kedo...*
	taitei	*Taitei wa shinai n desu kedo...*
	daitai	*Daitai kuji ni kimasu kedo, kyoo wa.*
periodicity	*mainichi, maitsuki, maishuu, mainen*	*Mainen ano kookoo to shiai o suru n desu.*

4. QUANTITATIVE CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
4.1 Number		
4.1.1 Cardinal numbers		
numerals up to eight digits *Note:* These are the names of numbers.	*zero, ichi, ni, san, si, go, roku, sichi, hachi, kyuu, juu* (in combination with numeral classifiers)	*Denwa bangoo desu ka. Hai. Yon-san-hachi no zero-nana-nana-ni desu.*
	hyaku/-byaku/-pyaku	*Sanbyaku hachijuu desu.*
	sen/-zen	A: *Ikutsu desu ka.* B: *Sanzen desu.*
	-man	
indigenous series numbers (mostly as bound forms)	*hi-, hu-, mi(t)-, yo(n), itsu, mu(t-), nana-, ya(t)-, kokono-*	*Itsutsu desu ne.* *Yonhyaku nanajuu desu.* *Nana-hon onegai shimasu.*
asking about numbers	*ikutsu...(ka)*	*Ikutsu desu ka.*
	nan-byaku...(ka)	
	nan-zen...(ka),	
	nan-man...(ka)	
4.1.2 Ordinal numbers		
order in a sequence	*-ban: ichi-ban, ni-ban, san-ban*	*Sanban, onegai shimasu.*
ranking in a sequence	*-banme: ichi-banme, ni-banme, san-ban(me),...*	*Sanbanme no hito, dare desita ka.*

4.1.3 Numeral classifiers

units of money	*-en, -doru, -sento*	*Sanjuugo-doru desu.* *Sanbyaku hachijuuen deshita.*
long objects (pencils, bottles, printer ribbons, tapes, films, videos, TV programs, etc.)	*-hon/-bon/-pon*	A: *Akai boorupen, arimasu ka.* B: *Koko ni ippon arimasu yo.* *Moo ippon miyoo.*
flat objects (sheets of paper, shirts, CDs, etc.)	*-mai*	*Sono shiroi kami o sanmai gurai kudasai.* *Atarashii shiidii o ichimai katta.*
bound volumes (books, magazines, but not newspapers)	*-satsu*	*Kinoo, Eigo no hon o sansatu yomimashita.*
unbound volumes (newspapers, multipage handouts)	*-bu*	*Watashi ni mo ichibu onegai simasu.*
equipment, machinery and vehicles	*-dai*	*Nihongo no waapuro o ichidai kaitai to omotte imasu kedo…* *Takushii ga moo ichidai kimashita.*
cupfulls, glassfulls	*-hai/-bai/-pai*	*Sumimasen. Moo ippai kudasai.*
roundish objects	*-ko*	*Sono pan o ikko kudasai.*
generic classifier	*-tsu*	*Yottsu kaimashita.*
humans	*-ri (hitori, hutari)*	*Kyoodai ga sannin imasu.*
	-nin (sannin…)	*Tomodati to futari de itta.* (total = two people)
small animals, excluding birds and rabbits	*hiki/-piki/-biki*	*Inu o nihiki iru katte iru.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
large mammals (appropriate in rural areas)	*-too*	*Uma o ittoo katte imasu.*
4.1.4 Approximation		
general approximation of number	*-gurai*	*Nooto ga sansatu gurai irimasu.*
Note: Students should understand the importance of approximation as a politeness strategy.	repetition of adjacent numbers: *ni-san-bon*, *shi-go-mai*, etc.	*Zasshi o ni-san-satsu yonde mimashita.*
4.2 Quantity		
4.2.1 Scalar quantities		
all (of objects)	*zenbu*	A: *Onegai shimasu.* B: *Zenbu desu ka.* A: *Ee.*
all (of humans)	*minna*	*Minna kimashita.*
almost all	*hotondo* + AFF PRED	*Hotondo nomimashita.* *Hotondo wakarimashita.*
half	*hanbun*	*Gohan o hanbun tabemashita kedo...*
a lot	*takusan*	*Hon ga takusan arimasu nee.*
a little	*sukosi, tyotto*	*Chotto de ii desu yo.*
not much	*amari* + NEG PRED	*Nihoncha desu ka... Amari nomanai desu nee...*
hardly any, almost none	*hotondo* + NEG PRED	*Sensei no hanashi, hotondo wakarimasen deshita.*
none at all	*zenzen*+ NEG PRED	*Ojiichan no kotoba wa zenzen wakarimasen deshita.*
both	*X mo Y mo*	*Tanaka-san mo Yoshida-san mo Eigo ga dekimasu.*

4.2.2 Distribution		
each	*-zutsu*	*Sono chiisai keeki, sanko-zutsu onegai shimasu.*
4.2.3 Addition		
'more' with respect to quantity	*motto*	*Sumimasen, miruku o motto irete kudasai.*
	moo + quantitative expression	*Konna akai nooto o moo nisatsu kudasai.*
4.2.4 Limitation		
limiting number of items	*dake*	*Okane ga amari nakatta no de, sansatsu dake katte kaerimashita.*
limiting the quantity of X's to Y	*X wa Y dake*	*Konna akai nooto wa kore dake desu ka.* ('Are these the only red notebooks like this?')
4.3 Degree		
strongest degree	*hijoo ni*	*Hijoo ni omoshiroi!* *Otoosan, hijoo ni shinpai shite imasu yo.*
strong degree	*totemo*	*Totemo oishii desu yo.*
weaker degree	*sukoshi, chotto*	A: *Genki ni narimashita ka.* B: *Ee, okagesama de, chotto yoku narimashita.*
	amari + NEG PRED	*Amari joozu ja nai desu kedo...*
to some extent indicated in the discourse or context	*konna ni*	*Sonna ni taihen desu ka.*
	sonna ni	
	anna ni	

5. PHYSICAL CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
5.1 Size, dimension		
big	*ooki-i*	A: *Sono shatsu, chiisaku nai desu ka.* B: *Iya, daijoobu desu yo.*
small	*chiisa-i*	
size of clothing	*saizu*	*Kutsu no saizu, wakarimasu ka.*
thick (of pencil, rope)	*futo-i*	*Motto futoi maakaa ga arimasen ka.*
thick (of book, volume)	*atu-i*	*Zuibun atsui kyookasho desu ne.*
tall (of object)	*taka-i*	*Mukoo no takai biru ga Heiwa Biru desu.*
tall (of person)	*se ga taka-i*	*Se ga takai kara, sugu wakaru.*
long	*naga-i*	*Kono sukaato, chotto mijikai ne. Motto nagai no nai no?*
short (of object)	*mijika-i*	
American units of length	*fuiito, mairu*	*Shiatoru kara Pootorando made 200 mairu gurai desu.*
metric units of length	*senchi, kiromeetoru*	*Yuki ga sanjussenchi gurai furimasita.*
5.2 Pressure, weight		
heavy	*omo-i*	A: *Sono nimotsu, omoku nai desu ka.* B: *Ie, karui desu yo.*
light	*karu-i*	
weight of object	*omo-sa*	*Sono nimotsu, omosa o hakarimashoo ka.*
weight of person	*taijuu*	*Taijuu wa 165-kiro gurai desu.*
metric units of weight	*guramu, kilo*	*Nimotsu wa nan-kiro made tada desu ka.*

American units of weight	*onsu, pondo*	*130-pondo da kara, nan-kiro gurai daroo.*
5.3 Volume		
Metric units of volume	*rittoru, miririttoru*	
American units of volume	*garon, painto*	
5.4 Temperature		
hot	*atsu-i*	*Natsu wa itsumo konna ni atsui n desu ka.*
warm	*atataka-i*	*Shiatoru wa fuyu mo atatakai desu ka.*
cold (ambient)	*samu-i*	*Chotto samui no de, mado-o shimete ii desu ka.*
cold (of object)	*tsumeta-i*	*Mizu ga tsumetai!*
	sesshi X-do	
5.5 Color		
basic colors	*shiro-i, kuro-i, aka-i kiiro-i, ao-i*	
	pinku (no), guree (no), chairo (no), midori (no)	
5.6 Material		
common materials	*purasuchikku (no)*	A: *Hontoo no kawa na n desu ka.* B: *Soo mitai desu ne.*
	tetsu (no)	
	kin (no)	
	gin (no)	
	ki (no)	
	kawa (no)	

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
5.7 Age		
new	*atarasi-i*	
old (of object), long standing	*furu-i* (not age)	*Kono miruku, chotto furui desu kedo.*
young	*waka-i*	
people of different age groups	*kodomo, wakai hito, otona, toshiyori*	*Kodomo futari to otona san-nin. Onegai shimasu.*
one's senior/ junior in club or organization	*senpai* *koohai*	
age in years	*(Chinese series numbers)* + *-sai*	A: *Tanaka-san, nan-sai-gurai desu ka.* B: *Nijuu-ni-san-sai da to omoimasu.*
	(Japanese series numbers) + *tsu*	A: *Oikutsu desu ka.* B: *Nanatsu desu.*
5.8 Condition		
5.8.1 Condition of thing		
OK	*daijoobu da* *daijoobu na X*	
broken	*dame da* *dame na X*	
	koshoo *koshoo site iru*	*Kono hoomu no tokei, koshoo site'masu ne.*
5.8.2 Condition of person		
OK	*daijoobu da*	*Moo daijoobu desu ka.*
healthy	*genki da*	*Hayaku genki ni natte kudasai.*
ill	*chooshi ga warui* *byooki da*	*Kesa wa chotto chooshi ga warui kara, yasumimasu.*

get better	*yoku naru,* *genki ni naru*	*Kono kusuri o nondara yoku naru kara...*
become dead	*naku naru*	*Chichi wa ninen mae ni nakunarimashita.*
be dead	*naku natte iru* *Note:* Students should use this euphemism.	

5.9 Cleanliness

clean	*kiree da* *kiree na X*	
make clean	*X-o kiree ni suru* *X-o katazukeru*	*Gohan ni suru kara, teeburu o katazukemashoo.*
wash	*X-o arau*	
bathe	*shawaa o suru* *(o)furo ni hairu*	*Shawaa o shitai n da kedo, ii deshoo ka.*
laundry	*sentaku* *sentaku (o) suru*	*Sentaku wa koko ni dashite kudasai.*
dirty	*kitana-i*	*Kono shatsu kitanaku narimashita kedo, sentaku wa doo shimashoo ka.*

5.10 Fullness

full, of train, bus	*man'in da* *konde iru*	*Kesa no densha wa man'in desita.*
empty of train, bus	*suite iru*	*Kono mae no sharyoo ga suite imasu kara, mae ni ikimashoo.*
empty of seat	*seki ga aite iru*	*Koko ni seki ga aite iru yo.*
full, of class, cup, container	*ippai (da)*	*Kono suutsukeesu, moo ippai desu ne.*

6. EVALUATIVE CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
6.1 Contrastive relations		
6.1.1 Equality, inequality		
sameness, identity	*onaji da*	*Onaji desu.*
		Onaji ja nai desu kedo...
	onaji NP	*Onaji hon desu.*
	(X wa) Y to onaji da	*Kore to onaji ja nai desu ka.*
	X to Y (to) ga onaji da	
similarity	*X mitai (da)*	*Tanaka-san mitai desu.*
	X mitai na NP	*Chokoreeto mitai desu kedo, Chokoreeto ja nai desu nee.*
		Hitsuji mitai na inu desu nee.
similarity to some deictic referent	*konna N, sonna N, anna N, donna N*	
	konna ni, sonna ni, anna ni, donna ni	
difference	*chigau*	*Chotto chigaimasu nee.*
	(X wa) Y to chigau	*Sore to wa chotto chigau n ja nai desu ka.*
	X to Y (to) ga chigau	
6.1.2 Comparison		
asking about and expressing comparison of two items	*dochira/dotchi*	*Dochira ga takai desu ka.*
	dochira no hoo	*Dotchi no e ga ii desu ka.*
	dochira/dotchi no NP	

	X to Y to	*Kore to kore to, dochira no hoo ga ii desu ka.* *Tanaka-san to Yamada-san to, dochira no hoo ga Eego ga joozu desu ka.*
	(Y yori) X no hoo ga PRED	*Kochira no no hoo ga ii desu.* *Enpitsu yori pen no hoo ga ii deshoo.*
asking about and expressing comparison of more than two items	*dore*	*Dore ga oishii desu ka.*
	dono NP	*Dono pen ga kakiyasui desu ka.*
the most (superlatives)	*ichiban*	*Dore ga ichiban suki desu ka.* *Kono akai no ga ichiban ookii desu.*
	X to Y to Z to	*Kore to kore to sore, dore ga ichiban omoshiroi desu ka.*

6.2 Specific concepts

6.2.1 Value, price

expensive	*taka-i*	A: *Takaku nai desu ka.* B: *Iya, yasui desu yo.*
cheap	*yasu-i*	*Kono mise wa yasui desu yo.*
	ikura desu ka	*Sono ookii no wa, ikura desu ka.*
	X-en desu	*Ano kutsu, ichiman sanzen-en desu yo.*
	X-doru desu	
change in price	*takaku naru*	*Mae wa yasukatta kedo, kono goro takaku narimashita.*
	yasuku naru	
price of an item	*nedan*	*Nedan o kikimashoo ka.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
6.2.2 Quality		
general quality	*ii desu*	*Nakanaka ii desu.*
poor quality	*(amari) yoku nai*	*Amari yoku nakatta desu.*
	yoku arimasen	
interest value of reading matter, entertainment	*omoshiro-i*	*Kono hon, omoshiroi desu ka.*
	tsumarana-i	
quality of food	*oishi-i*	*Ano restoran, oishiku nakatta desu ne.*
	oishiku nai	
quality of performance	*yoku*	*Yoku dekimashita.*
	amari + NEG PRED	*Nihongo wa amari kakemasen ne.*
6.2.3 (In)adequacy		
adequate but not necessarily desirable	*X de ii*	*Kore de ii desu ka.*
	X de daijoobu da	*Konna no de daijoobu desu ka.*
enough	*X ga juubun da*	*A, moo juubun desu yo.*
	juubun na X	
sufficiency	*(X ga) tariru*	*Gohan ga tarite'masu ka.*
		Satoo wa chotto tarimasen nee.
6.2.4 Correctness		
OK, correct	*ii*	*Kono kotae de ii desu ka.*
correct	*tadashi-i*	*Tadashii kotae wa C desu.*
wrong	*chigaimasu*	A: *Dore desu ka. Are desu ka.* B: *Chigaimasu. Sore desu yo.*
	machigatte iru	*Kono kotae ga machigatte'masu.*

6.2.5 Usefulness

convenient/useful	*benri da* *benri na X*	*Kono sofuto, nakanaka benri nan desu yo.*
inconvenient/not useful	*amari benri ja nai fuben da* *huben na X*	*Basu wa chotto fuben da kara, takushii de ikimashoo.*
able to use/not able to use	*tsukaeru/tsukaenai*	*Sono konpyuutaa wa koshoo de, ima chotto tsukaenai n desu kedo...*

6.2.6 Success

perform action to determine outcome	*V-te miru*	*Yonde mita kedo, amari omoshiroku nakatta.*
lack of success	*dame da*	*Tsukutte mimashita kedo, yappari dame deshita.*

6.2.7 (In)capacity

can(not) do	potential forms (see "1. Existential concepts")	*Ashita koraremasu.* *Kanji desu ka. Iya, amari kakemasen.*
	dekiru/dekinai	*Ashita made ni wa dekimasu.*
can(not) understand	*wakaru/wakaranai*	*Kono Nihongo wa wakarimasen nee.*
incapacity owing to circumstances	*shikata ga nai/siyoo ga nai*	*Ikitakatta kedo, shikata ga arimasen deshita.*

6.2.8. Difficulty

easy	*yasashi-i*	*Yasashii mondai mo atta.*
difficult	*muzukashi-i*	*Muzukashiku nakatta?*
easy to	*(X ga) V-yasu-i*	*Tsukai-yasui desu ka, kono konpyuutaa...*
difficult to	*(X ga) V-niku-i*	*Wakari-nikui Nihongo desu nee.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
6.2.9 Importance		
important owing to personal assessment	*taisetsu da* *taisetsu na X*	*Taisetsu na shashin, wasurenaide kudasai.*
6.2.10 (Ab)normality		
normal	*futuu da* *futuu no*	A: *Amerika no uchi na no?* B: *Futuu no uchi da kedo...*
abnormal, strange	*hen da* *hen na X*	*Hen na hito da ne.*

7. REFERENTIAL CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
7.1 Definite reference		
definite reference using zero pronoun strategy	Ø	A: *Tanaka-san, ashita kimasu ne?* B: *Ee, Ø kimasu yo.*
reference using deictic expressions (*ko-so-a-do* words)	*kore, sore, are* *kono NP, sono NP, ano NP*	*Kore wa doo desu ka.* Kono CD, *doko de katta no?*
personal pronouns *Note:* Do not overuse. Students should use these forms only when identification by a pronoun is unavoidable.	*watashi, boku* *kare, kanojo* Note: *Anata* should be avoided as this is typically used from higher status person to lower. Proper names, kinship terms, titles should be used instead.	A: *Dare ga tabeta n desu ka.* B: *A. Watashi desu. Doo mo sumimasen.*
proper name strategies to avoid use of *anata* and other pronouns	*[name]-kun*	A: *Toshi-kun mo taberu?* B: *Ee, taberu yo.*
	[name]-san	*Tanaka-san mo ikimasu ka.*

kinship term strategies to avoid use of *anata* and other pronouns	*otoosan, okaasan,* etc. *[name]-kun no otoosan*	A: *Mika-chan no otoosan mo iku n desu ka.* B: *Ee, ikimasu yo.*
occupational title strategies to avoid use of *anata* and other pronouns	*sensei*	*Tanaka-sensei mo irasshaimasu ka.*
		Sensei mo irasshaimasu ka.
possessive constructions	*sensei no*	*Sensei no desu ka.*
	[name]-san no *watashi no*	A: *Kore Suuzan-san no desu ka.* B: *Ee, watashi no desu kedo...*
reflexives	*jibun* *jibun no*	*Jibun no heya ga nai no de, chotto komatte imasu.*

7.2 Indefinite reference

inherently indefinite nouns	*mono*	*Ironna mono ga arimasu yo.*
indefinite expressions	*dareka*	*Dareka ga kimashita.*
	nanika	*Nanika ii aidea nai desu ka.*
	dokoka	*Dokoka ni itta n desu.*
		Dokoka de mimashita yo.
	itsumo	*Ano hito, itsumo okureru.*
negative polarity items	*daremo* + NEG	*Dare mo tabemasen deshita.*
	nanimo+ NEG	*Nanimo nakatta.*
		Nanimo tabemasen deshita.
	doko ni mo+ NEG	*Doko ni mo inakatta.*
interrogatives	*dore (...ka)*	*Dore ni shimasu ka.*
		Dore ni suru?
	dono N *(...ka)*	*Dono jisho ga ii desu ka.*
		Dono jisho ga ii?

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
	donna N (…ka)	*Donna konpyuutaa o tsukatte iru n desu ka.*
		Donna konpyuutaa o tsukatte iru no?
	dare (…ka)	*Dare ga wakaru deshoo ka.*
		Dare ga wakaru daroo ka.
	dare no N (…ka)	*Kore, dare no kyookasho desu ka.*
		Kore, dare no kyookasho?
	itsu (…ka)	*Itsu tsukimashita ka.*
		Itsu tsuita?
	doko (…ka)	*Doko de machimashoo ka.*
		Doko de matoo ka.
	nanji (…ka)	*Nanji de ii ka, kiite mite kudasai.*

8. EVENT-RELATED CONCEPTS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
8.1 Agent		
agent of event or activity as focus of new information (e.g., in response to content questions)	transitive verbs: *NP ga (NP o) V*	*Boku ga tabemashita.* (I'm the one that ate it')
	intransitive activity verbs: *NP ga V*	*Tanaka-san ga itta.* ('It was Tanaka-san who went')
implicit agent, not focus of new information	zero pronoun (*Ø*) *Note:* This is commonly equivalent to English unstressed pronoun.	A: *Tanaka-san mo yomimashita ne?* B: *Ee, Ø yomimashita yo.* ('Yes, hĕ did.')

8.2 Experiencer

experiencer of psychological state as focus of new information	"double *ga*" constructions: *(NP ga) (NP ga) V:* *wakaru*, 'understands'	*Tanaka-san ga (Chuugokugo-ga) wakarimasu.*
	iru 'needs'	*A! Boku ga irimasu.*
	aru 'exists'	
	suki da 'likes'	
	kirai da 'dislikes'	
	joozu da 'is skilled at'	A: *Chuugokugo wa Tanaka-san ga joozu desu ne?* B: *Iya, Murata-san ga joozu desu yo.*
experiencer of psychological state	*NP ni (wa) (NP ga) V*	*Boku ni wa wakarimasen nee.*

8.3 Theme/ patient

an entity affected by an event or activity, as focus of new information	object NP marked by particle *o*	A: *Kirei na ji desu nee. Nani o tsukatta n desu ka.* B: *Kono waapuro o tsukatta n desu.*
an entity as theme of a verb with an experiencer subject	*NP ga*	A: *Nihongo ga yoku dekimasu nee.* B: *Ieie.*
the entity affected by an event or activity, not focus of new information	zero pronoun *(Ø)* *Note:* This is commonly equivalent to English unstressed pronoun.	A: *Yamamoto-san ga kono zasshi o katta n desu ne?* B: *Ee, Yamamoto-san ga Ø katta n desu.*
the entity or person described or identified by a sta focus of new tive predicate, as information	*NP ga* ADJ	A: *Dore ga ii desu ka.* B: *Kono ookii no ga oishii desu.* A: *Dare no ga kirei desu ka.* B: *Mori-san no ga kirei desu*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
	NP ga ADJ-NOUN *da* *NP ga NP da*	A: *Dore ga atarashii konpyuutaa desu ka.* B: *Kono chiisai no ga atarashii konpyuutaa desu.*
8.4 Goal		
goal as indirect object	*NP ni (NP-o) V*	*Tanaka-san ni agemashita.* *Yoshida-san ni hagaki o kakitai n desu ga, juusho ga wakarimasu ka.*
goal of motion	*NP ni V*	*Oosaka ni itte imasu.*
	NP e V	*Shikoku e itta n da.*
final location of object at end of activity	*NP ni V*	*Kokuban ni kakimashita.* *Nanji ni Nyuu Yooku ni tsukimasu ka.*
8.5 Source		
source of object or information	*NP kara*	*Tomodachi kara karimashita.* *Tanaka-san kara kikimashita.*
	NP ni	*Tomodachi ni karimashita.* *Tanaka san ni kikimashoo.* *Sensei ni itadakimashita.*
8.6 Means, instrument		
a thing by means of which some activity is performed or a state is realized	*NP de*	*Aoi pen de kaita n desu kedo…* *Basu de ikimashoo.* *Denwa de hanashimashita.* *Funabin de okurimashoo.* *Denwachoo de shirabemashoo ka.*

		Nihongo de hanashite kudasai. *Kanji de kaite kudasai.*
an activity by means of which some other activity or state is achieved	*V-te*	*Kyoo wa aruite kimashita.* *Aruite juppun desu.* *Sensei ni kiite wakarimashita.* *Konpyuutaa o tsukatte tukurimashita.*
8.7 Causation		
having others perform things for one, or on one's behalf	*V-te itadaku*	*Sensei ni kaite itadakimashita.*
	V -te morau	*Tomodati ni teepu ni totte moraimashita.*
an activity that triggers an event or state of affairs	*V-te*	*Yamamoto-san ga konakute, komarimashita.* *Itte yokatta desu ne!*
	ADJ-*te*	*Yasukute yokatta desu.* *Atsukute taihen datta.*
	ADJ-NOUN *de*	*Kirei de yokatta desu.*
	NP *de*	*Asita de yokatta desu.* *Watasi ja nakute yokatta desu.*
an event that triggers an event or state or affairs	NP *de*	*Byooki de yasumimashita.* *Ziko de basu ga okureta n desu.*
8.8 Manner		
	V-te	*Isoide ikimashita.*
	doo yatte/doo shite	*Doo yatte shirabemasu ka.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
	ADJ-*ku*	*Hayaku arukimashoo.*
		Ookiku kakimashita.
	ADJ-NOUN *ni*	*Shizuka ni hon o yonde imashita.*
	hayaku	*Hakkiri kakimashita.*
	yukkuri	
	hakkiri	
8.9 Possessive relations		
ownership	*NP no NPP*	*Tanaka-san no kuruma ni norimashoo.*
	watashi/boku no NP	*Sore, boku no kyookasho da yo.*
	sensei no NP	
	[name]-san no NP	
	dare/donata no NP	
	[name]-san no	*Tanaka-san no ga ichiban furui yo.*
	dare/donata no	
possession expressed as existence or other relations	*iru ('exists')*	*Neko ga nihiki imasu.*
	aru	*Okane wa nisen'en gurai aru kedo...*
	motte iru	*Nihon no ootobai o motte imasu.*

9. LOGICAL RELATIONS

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
9.1 Conjunction		
exhaustive conjunction of referents	*NP to NP*	*Tanaka-san to Yamada-san ga miemashita.*

non-exhaustive conjunction of referents	*NP ya NP*	*Inu ya neko o katte imasu.*
adding a referent to the set of referents with respect to which a proposition applies ('also')	*NP mo* PRED	*Yamamoto-san mo kimashita.* *Watashi mo, B-teishoku onegai shimasu.* *Sore kara, sarada mo onegai shimasu.*
conjunction of referents of a proposition ('both… and …')	*NP mo NP mo* PRED	*Keeki mo, purin mo tabemashita.* *Tanaka-san mo Yamada-san mo miemasen deshita.*
conjunction of clauses, without contrast	*[…-te$_{S1}$] S2*	*Yamada-san wa Toodai de, Yoshida-san wa Waseda desu.* *Kukkii o tsukutte, Yoshiko-san ni agemashita.*
conjunction of clauses, with contrast	*S1 kedo/ga, S2*	*Yamada-san wa Nihonjin da kedo, Yoshida-san wa Amerikajin desu.*

9.2 Disjunction

disjunction of referents	*NP ka NP (ka)*	*Tanaka-san ka Yamamoto-san ni kiite kudasai.*

9.3 Reciprocal relations

	(NP wa) NP to PRED (with specific predicates, chiefly *kekkon suru, hanasu, au, onaji da, chigau*)	*Amerikajin to kekkon shite imasu.* *Kore to onaji da.* *Sore to wa chigau.*

concepts	essential patterns and phrases	examples
9.4 Subset relations		
part/whole	*X wa Y ga* PRED (where Y is a element or a part of X) (also possession)	*Yoshiko-chan wa me ga kirei da nee.* *Gakkoo wa, Nihongo no jugyoo ga tanoshii.*
9.5 Inclusion		
accompaniment	*NP to (issho ni)*	*Sensei to issho ni kimashita.*
taking other along	*(Y o) tureru* *Note:* This is not used where Y is a superior.	*Imooto o turete kimashita.*
9.6 Cause and effect		
explicit cause and effect	*S1 kara, S2*	*Muzukashikatta kara, amari dekinakatta.*
implicit cause and effect	*[…-te*S1*], S2*	*Jiko de, okureta n desu.*
	S1 no de, S2	*Hen na mono o tabete, onaka ga itaku natta n desu.*
9.7 Reason		
giving the explanation for some state or action that known to both speakers	*[…*S*] n da*	A: *Kinoo no konsaato ni ikimashita ka.* B: *Ikitakatta n desu ga, okane ga nakatta n desu.* A: *Tookyoo no shashin desu yo.* B: *E? Nihon ni itta n desu ka.*
giving a reason for a statement or request	*S1 no de S2* *Note:* The use of *no de* is best understood if it is recognized as the *-te* form gerund of *[…*S*] n da*.	*Tanaka-san ga konakatta no de, watashi ga shimashita.* *Kibun ga tyotto warui no de, hayame ni kaette mo ii desu ka.*

9.8 Purpose		
	V ni iku/kuru	*Depaato de teepu o kai ni itta*
9.9 Condition		
simple condition	*[...PRED-tara*$_{S1}$*], S2*	*Tanaka-san ni attara, yoroshiku itte kudasai.* *Chanto benkyoo shitara, seiseki ga yoku naru to omoimasu.* *Takakattara, kawanai.* *Tanaka-san dattara, doo shimasu ka.*
concessive condition	*[...PRED-te*$_{S1}$*] mo, S2*	*Tanaka-san ni kiite mo wakaranai deshoo.* *Ima kara dete mo, ma ni awanai deshoo.*

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The Washington State Japanese Language Curriculum Guidelines Committee was an adhoc group of high school and college teachers and private individuals who, between 1991 and 1997, volunteered their services to improve the quality of Japanese language learning and instruction in their state.

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SLTCC
TECHNICAL REPORTS

The Technical Reports of the Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center at the University of Hawai'i (SLTCC) report on ongoing curriculum projects, provide the results of research related to second language learning and teaching, and also include extensive related bibliographies. SLTCC Technical Reports are available through University of Hawai'i Press.

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RESEARCH METHODS IN INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS

GABRIELE KASPER
MERETE DAHL

This technical report reviews the methods of data collection employed in 39 studies of interlanguage pragmatics, defined narrowly as the investigation of nonnative speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts, and the acquisition of L2-related speech act knowledge. Data collection instruments are distinguished according to the degree to which they constrain informants' responses, and whether they tap speech act perception/comprehension or production. A main focus of discussion is the validity of different types of data, in particular their adequacy to approximate authentic performance of linguistic action. 51 pp.

(SLTCC Technical Report #1) ISBN 0–8248–1419–3 $10.

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THOM HUDSON
EMILY DETMER
J. D. BROWN

This technical report presents a framework for developing methods that assess cross-cultural pragmatic ability. Although the framework has been designed for Japanese and American cross-cultural contrasts, it can serve as a generic approach that can be applied to other language contrasts. The focus is on the variables of social distance, relative power, and the degree of imposition within the speech acts of requests, refusals, and apologies. Evaluation of performance is based on recognition of the speech act, amount of speech, forms or formulæ used, directness, formality, and politeness. 51 pp.

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GABRIELE KASPER
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SACHIKO MATSUNAGA

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- Sociolinguistics—Sociolinguistic phenomena in Swahili, signing, Hawaiian, and Japanese are discussed in four of the papers.
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SAYOKO OKADA YAMASHITA

This book investigates differences among tests that can be used to measure the cross-cultural pragmatic ability of English-speaking learners of Japanese. Building on the work of Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (Technical Reports #2 and #7 in this series), the author modified six test types which she used to gather data from North American learners of Japanese. She found numerous problems with the multiple-choice discourse completion test but reported that the other five tests all proved highly reliable and reasonably valid. Practical issues involved in creating and using such language tests are discussed from a variety of perspectives. 213 pp.

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NEW TRENDS & ISSUES IN TEACHING JAPANESE LANGUAGE & CULTURE

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In recent years, Japanese has become the fourth most commonly taught foreign language at the college level in the United States. As the number of students who study Japanese has increased, the teaching of Japanese as a foreign language has been established as an important academic field of study. This technical report includes nine contributions to the advancement of this field, encompassing the following five important issues:

- Literature and literature teaching
- Technology in the language classroom
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- Grammatical versus pragmatic approaches to language teaching 164 pp.

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SYLVIA HENEL SUN

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This technical report focuses on the decision-making potential provided by second language performance assessments. The authors first situate performance assessment within a broader discussion of alternatives in language assessment and in educational assessment in general. They then discuss issues in performance assessment design, implementation, reliability, and validity. Finally, they present a prototype framework for second language performance assessment based on the integration of theoretical underpinnings and research findings from the task-based language teaching literature, the language testing literature, and the educational measurement literature. The authors outline test and item specifications, and they present numerous examples of prototypical language tasks. They also propose a research agenda focusing on the operationalization of second language performance assessments. 226 pp.

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- obstacles to developing bilingualism
- implications of acculturation, identity, and language issues for linguistic minorities.
- the potential for developing partnerships across primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions

Part II of the volume provides research findings on the *Foreign language partnership project* designed to capitalize on the resources of immigrant students to enhance foreign language learning. 124 pp.

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A COMMUNICATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR INTRODUCTORY JAPANESE LANGUAGE CURRICULA

WASHINGTON STATE JAPANESE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM GUIDELINES COMMITTEE

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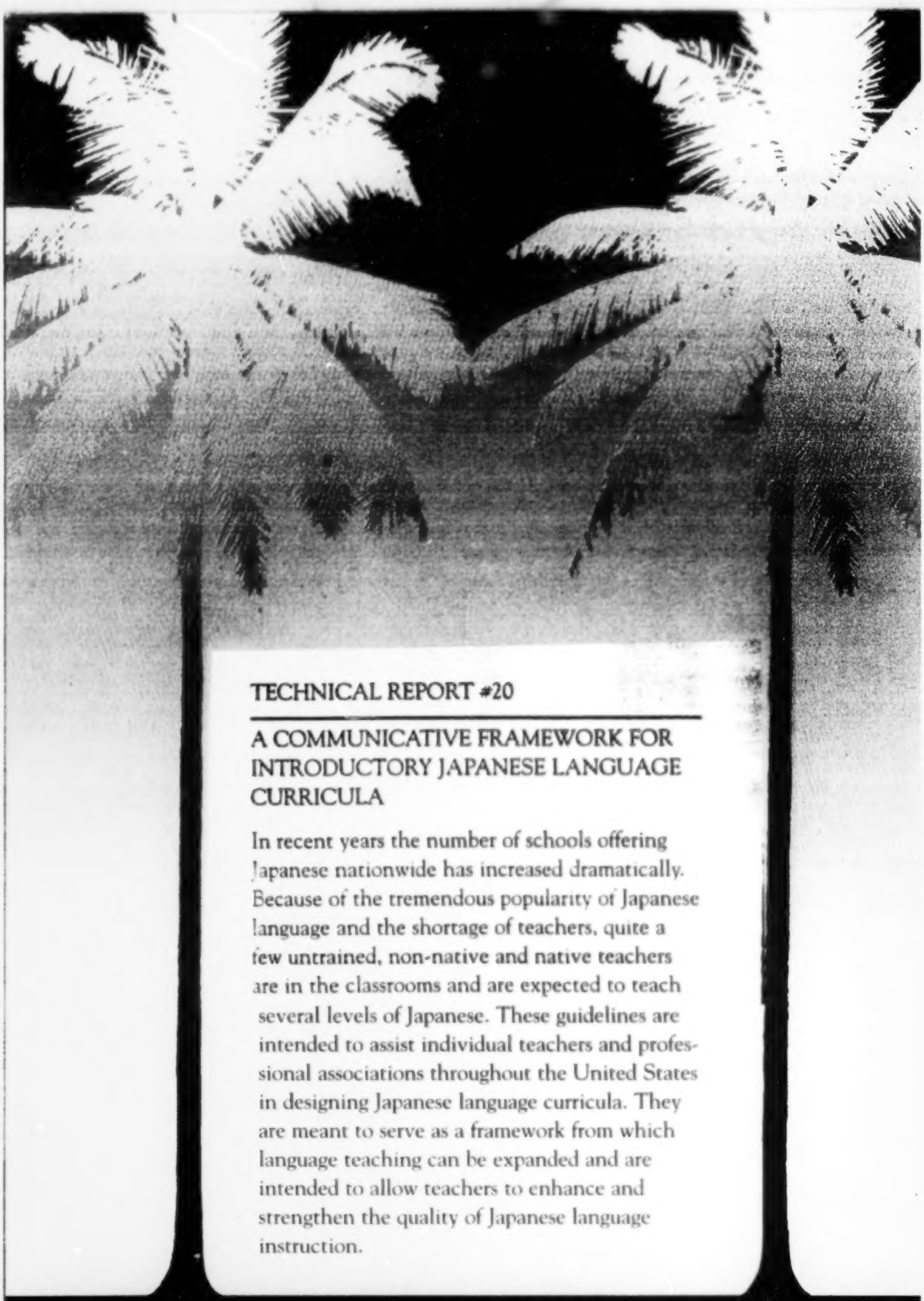

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